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ABSTRACT

A study examined the vocational guidance needs of young people in Greece. Available literature on the following topics was reviewed: transitions of young people to economically active life; available vocational guidance services; transitions of youth from education to work; youths who abandon compulsory education; and young women with gymnasion/lykeion leaving certificates but without vocational training. Greece's system of schools vocational guidance was found to be a newly emerged institution that has yet to play an important role in informing and guiding Greece's young people concerning their occupational decisions and that contains no provisions whatsoever for meeting the needs of youths in crisis, youths facing specific problems with vocational guidance, and youths preparing to enter the labor market. It was emphasized that, like any relatively new institution, Greece's system of schools vocational guidance can only be improved by continual assessment of its application and identification of its weak points by researchers outside education. (Contains 54 references and 26 tables. Appended are lists of acronyms, technical vocational departments and specialities, and Manpower Employment Organisation specialties.) (MN)

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ED 396 072

Determining the need for vocational counselling among different target groups of young people under 28 years of age in the European Community

Young people's need for vocational guidance in Greece

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Determining the need for vocational counselling among different target groups of young people under 28 years of age in the European Community

Young people's need for vocational guidance in Greece

The young population in general
Young people who leave school without completing compulsory education
Young women with no skills training

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Preface by CEDEFOP

In developing the careers of young people and integrating them into working life, career guidance is becoming increasingly important. Persistent, structurally-caused unemployment, higher qualification requirements, complex training paths with eased transition between initial and continuing training, the increasing deregulation of the labour market and the emergence of new values and life styles among young people present career guidance services, as the instrument for regulating supply and demand on training, education and labour markets, with fundamental and complex tasks. At the same time, European integration poses new challenges to the career guidance services in the Member States. The PETRA 3 programme has taken an initial step in this direction through setting up European-oriented national resource centres, through organizing transitional continuing training courses for occupational guidance counsellors and publishing the "European Manual for Occupational Guidance Counsellors".

The comparative studies[1] carried out by CEDEFOP and Task Force: Human Resources, Education, Training and Youth to support and monitor work in this field have increased transparency in national occupational guidance systems and qualification structures.

The activities and research work carried out aimed primarily to make proposals or provide support for improving occupational guidance activities, to focus such work in a European context on the basis of existing national structures. Counselling requirements were deduced from existing or forecasted demand (enquiries at guidance services) or from general data derived from labour market and occupational research.

To date the needs of various target groups of young people based on their economic and social and cultural situation, their values, their career plans, their conception of the efficiency of occupational guidance offers etc. have not been taken into account.

This issue was examined in the project "Determination of (occupational) guidance needs for various groups of young people under 28 years of age in the European Union", carried out between March 1993 and May 1994, the results of which are now available (12 national reports, in the original language and English, partly in French, the synthesis report in English, French, German, Italian and Spanish).

A total of 21 target groups were examined; nine of the reports examined two of the groups and three reports examined one target group. Particular attention was devoted to young people at a particular disadvantage who had no or inadequate access to occupational guidance services. The target groups selected are listed in the appendices of the 12 national reports and the synthesis report as the aims and findings of the project - as stressed in the synthesis report - can only be viewed in the context of the interrelationships between the various elements. The national reports have been published in separate editions as certain readers are interested

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[1] Occupational profiles and training in occupational guidance counselling, CEDEFOP, 1992, 12 national studies and synthesis report.
Educational and vocational guidance services for youth and young adults in the EC, European Commission, 1993, 12 national reports and synthesis report. As a supplement:
EUROCOUNSEL, Counselling and long-term unemployment, European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions, Dublin, 1992-1993, 6 national studies and synthesis report.

in specific target groups whose problems in finding training and work have supra-national features which are characteristic of other target groups which we selected.

This project was commissioned by Task Force: Human Resources, Education, Training and Youth as part of the PETRA 3 programme aiming to produce indicators for differentiated and demand-oriented occupational guidance practices and to create more offensive planning strategies to reach as far as possible those target groups which were excluded from guidance counselling for the reasons contained in the reports. New proposals are being formulated at present to prepare the gradual transition to the "LEONARDO DA VINCI Programme".

Enrique Retuerto de la Torre
Deputy Director

Gesa Chomé
Project Coordinator

INTRODUCTION

Full abolition of the internal borders of the Community turns one of the fundamental rights of European citizens into reality: that of freedom of movement. Freedom of movement, however, is not only a right of European citizens but also a need which is related to the position of Europe in global economic competition. The Community's aims and expectations are that the Single European Market will function as a dynamic development programme. Today's young people are those who will live with its results, which they will have to take advantage of at the same time as protecting themselves from any dangers that may emerge. To achieve this, "Vocational Guidance Services of every member state will need to adapt and extend their services as regards information and counselling to the dimensions of European space" (Task Force Human Resources, Education, Training and Youth, 1993). VG must convert the principle of freedom of movement into an effective practice. It must manage effectively a large volume of information relevant to Community countries' labour markets, new skills and different education and training systems. It must, finally, respond to the needs and problems of the young in connection with their vocational guidance and, at the same time, with the single market contribute to the creation of a communal Europe. This report, together with other activities like, for example, EURES, PETRA II, the study of the professional profile of vocational guidance counsellors, is one of the first steps in the challenge presented by a dynamic and European form of guidance.

The aim of this report is to set out the needs, as regards vocational guidance, of specific groups of young people aged 15-28. We have chosen two groups: a) young people who abandon the 9-year compulsory education and b) young women with a leaving certificate from secondary education, without vocational training in any skill. The main reason for our choice is that the official education system neglects both these groups. As regards the first group in particular, one might even say that the education system is not aware of that group's existence. On the other hand, other agencies which could have filled in this gap are newly set up and lack both the experience and potential to do so. The needs of young people — according to our brief — should be examined with a view to the future and in relation to two other factors: mobility/non-mobility and social exclusion/non-exclusion.

It is very difficult to forecast as from now and within such a limited study the extent of mobility and its effects on socio-economic development and, particularly, on VG for specific groups. Thus, we will approach the factor of mobility/non-mobility not so much as the possibility of movement from place to place but more as an attitude of life which makes individuals, in the first instance, open to inclinations and changes deriving from communication with citizens of other countries and, secondly, makes them aware of the global quality which is a feature today — and more so tomorrow — of the narrow environment in which they live. The groups with which we shall deal, in any case, do not have many chances of moving to another Community country. We should also be mindful of the fact that Greece lies on the periphery of the EC and does not share a border with any other Community country. Our young people — as also transpires from a study of the Commission (INRA EUROPE, 1991) — are the least well-travelled in comparison with young people of other countries. Yet, they have great possibilities, for reasons we will go into further down, to develop mobility as an attitude of life.

As regards mobility/non-mobility, we should point out certain features of our country which speak for the increased mobility of our people. Greece has established from deepest antiquity a huge tradition of emigration. The reasons have mostly been economic and, sometimes, political. Greeks of the diaspora are reckoned to be approximately 10 million. A result of emigration has also been the repeated experience of the return home by Greek emigrants or the arrival of refugees of Greek descent from other countries. Such experiences have brought about economic hardship but cultural enrichment. Furthermore, Greece is an island country surrounded by the sea and has a great seafaring tradition. Finally, the development of tourism and foreign language learning by the new generation has brought a large slice of young people, even those from small and isolated areas, into contact with citizens of other countries. We believe that the above considerations contribute to a flexible attitude, open to new inclinations and changes coming from the broader European framework. Turning now to social exclusion, we agree with the definition that, "Social exclusion is the alienation of a person from one or more of the following main institutions: a) the labour market, b) the family and other informal networks (friends, acquaintances, community) and c) the state" (Karantinos, Kavounidis, Ioannou, Korniodos and Tinios, 1992).

Much proof exists that economic and technological development may marginalise socially and economically those population groups who, for various reasons, will be unable to utilise positively important changes taking place at all levels. The specific groups we have chosen belong in this category: they may be threatened by social exclusion.

The formulation of the topic, in our opinion, contains certain problems. The term "need" is very general and has not been defined operationally. We have not attempted to define it. To overcome the difficulty, we have described problem situations facing the young at different transitional stages of their lives and from which their needs derive.

A second problem is presented by the term "VG". VG is a broad institution, comprising all activities which help the person directly or indirectly to integrate socially and vocationally. Professionally, as well as at the level of its application, VG is an inter-disciplinary subject (psychology, economics, sociology, education) as well as an "inter-institutional" one (formal education, employment, psycho-social services). For this reason, the needs for VG may be economic, psychological, social, educational, a little of each, one of them or a little of all of them. More particularly as regards the target groups we chose, we often found ourselves wondering whether the group's needs were needs for VG or needs of an economic nature, social nature, etc.

The subject of our study, finally, presupposed the existence of VG Services to which young people of all groups turned for VG help. VG Services and VG workers should have been the basic information source as concerns problems and needs of the young, quite apart from the review of the relevant bibliography. In Greece, though, these Services are so little developed that they were not used as information sources. The sources used were the extant bibliography, the statistics from workforce surveys and education statistics. We also used interviews with certain officers of agencies dealing with the population of the groups which interested us and with higher officers of SVG as well as vocational training, who play key rôles in the design of Schools Vocational Guidance (SVG) and vocational training. Interviews with OAED officers were not needed because Mrs Zanni-Teliopoulou was, until 1989, a higher officer of the VG Directorate of the OAED.

The report comprises four chapters. The first chapter, describes the general context into which the young are called to integrate and to which they are asked to adapt: the education system, the labour market and the prevailing relationships and perceptions. The second chapter describes VG services. The third chapter describes the needs and problems of young people in general, as well as those of our chosen target groups. Due to the scarcity of data relevant to our target groups, we considered at length the problems of the general population. The fourth chapter contains comments and observations on VG services. This chapter concludes with a review of the needs of the young and by offering suggestions for the creation of VG Services which respond to such needs.

Chapter 1

TRANSITION OF YOUNG PEOPLE TO ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE LIFE: GENERAL CONTEXT

1.1 General Remarks

Similar to all contemporary societies, the formation of personal and social identity of human beings, as well as their effective coming of age, passes through the formation of their occupational identity. It is generally accepted that the preparation — formal and informal — for an occupation and for the integration of young people into the labour market is not only related to previous stages of their lives but in certain cases it is definitively influenced by them. Although integral, this comprises various critical transitional stages to which we will mainly refer. Furthermore, the nature of preparation, as well as these transitional stages, are influenced and formed by the current educational system, the labour market situation and the prevailing perceptions, values, and social attitudes and, finally, may be helped or hindered by the existence or not of VG services.

For all the above reasons, in this chapter we will describe a) the education system, b) the labour market situation as it has developed in recent years, c) the perceptions and value system of Greek society, as regards working life. A separate chapter will be devoted to existing VG services and their assessment.

1.2 The Education System

The Greek education system, like that of most countries, comprises (beyond pre-school) three levels: Primary, Secondary and Tertiary education (see Diagram 1).

Primary education (Demotikon School) lasts for six years, it is general and the syllabus is determined centrally by the appropriate Directorate of the Ministry for National Education

and Religion (MNER). Up to Class 4 of primary school, the pupils are examined only orally. In Classes 5 and 6, pupils are also examined in writing every term on the material that has been taught. All pupils go up to the next class unhindered and independently of their performance. Primary school teaching staff — called "Teacher" or "Pedagogue" — hold diplomas from the respective schools of tertiary education. The content of teacher training here is general — no specialisation — and contains some course in the science of teaching and education psychology.

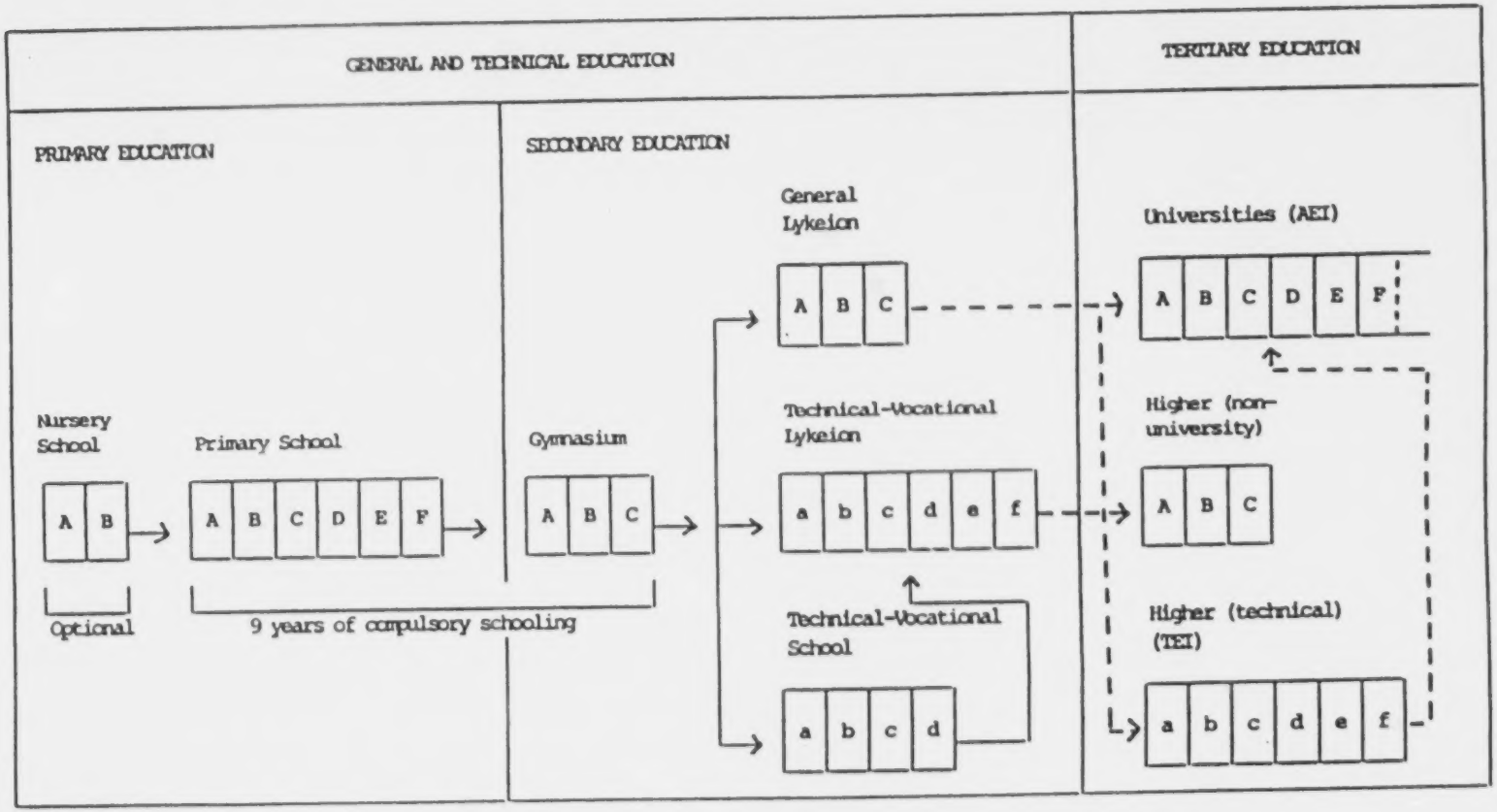
As mentioned above, the Demotikon Schools are general, the only exception being Special Schools for children with special needs.

Secondary education comprises two levels, the Gymnasion and the Lykeion. The first level, the Gymnasion, which lasts three years, offers general education — the only exception being Church Gymnasions — and, together with the Demotikon, make up the nine-year compulsory education in Greece. The Gymnasion syllabus is determined centrally by the appropriate Directorate of the Ministry for National Education and Religion (MNER). From 1985 the Gymnasion curriculum included Schools Vocational Guidance (SVG). The Gymnasion teaching. staff comprises secondary school teachers who hold HEE diplomas in the speciality they teach. Their university training in the science of teaching is minimal. During their career in education, some teachers participate in in-service further education programmes.

Pupils go up a class through oral examinations and also by written revision tests held twice in every school year; those pupils who do not achieve the necessary grades may either be re-examined in certain subjects or have to repeat the entire school year.

A serious criticism of Gymnasion education is that the syllabus is not integrated with that of the Demotikon Schools; in other words, it is not a logical extension of primary education but is independent, to a large extent, of the work of the Demotikon Schools. As a result, the transition from Demotikon to Gymnasion becomes a critical stage for a large number of pupils. This situation is thought to be a relic from the time when compulsory education ended with the Demotikon and the passage into a gymnasion presupposed entrance examinations.

Diagram 1



ABCDEF = Year of study → = transfer not subject to exam

abcdef = Semester - - → = transfer subject to exam

Source: Eurydice, 1984.

The second level of secondary education is the Lykeion, which lasts three years and which accepts all pupils who have finished the Gymnasion successfully, without further entrance exams. There are four basic types of Lykeion: general, classic, technical-vocational and integral multi-discipline.

The General Lykeion (GEL) is the commonest type of Lykeion and leads to all tertiary education establishments but, naturally, according to subject choices made by the pupil in the final Lykeion year. The Classic Lykeion leads only to tertiary classical studies.

The Technical-Vocational Lykeion (TVL) leads to all tertiary education establishments — with the exception of classical studies — according to subject choices made by the pupil in the final Lykeion year.

The Integral Multi-Discipline Lykeion (IML) is a type of Lykeion aiming to combine technical-vocational education with general education and promote an all-round development of the abilities, skills and interests of young people by offering them a greater number of subjects and choices than other Lykeions. Finally, another type of Lykeion is the Church one.

The Lykeions' syllabi are determined centrally by the appropriate Directorate of the Ministry for National Education and Religion (MNER) and, similar to the Gymnasion, from 1985 the SVG has existed in all types of Lykeion. The Lykeion teaching staff is the same as that of the Gymnasion. Concerning technological subjects, however, the teachers must also have been trained in the science of teaching. In order to go up a class, the pupils are examined orally throughout the school year and in writing at the end of the year.

Tertiary education comprises, on the one hand, the Higher Education Establishments (HEE) and, on the other hand, the Institutes of Technological Education (TEI). For entry to Tertiary education, the pupils must take the General exam, which applies to the whole of Greece concerning entry to Tertiary education.

Technical-vocational education/training is in the competency of the MNER as well as the

Manpower Employment Organisation (OAED). The MNER provides the following kinds of vocational education establishments:

— TVLs, which we have already described, and especially their section which does not lead to Tertiary education.

— Technical-Vocational Schools (TVS). These run two year courses, accepting young people who hold the Gymnasion leaving certificate without selection examinations.

— Integral Multi-Discipline Lykeions (IML), more specifically their departments which do not lead to Tertiary education.

— Vocational Training Institutes (VTI). These were instituted very recently through Law 2009/92 and aim to offer post-Lykeion vocational training — initial or on-going — which is harmonised with the country's educational system, the Greek labour market and matters of current validity in the EC.

TVLs, TVSs and IMLs make up a kind of initial vocational training wherein theoretical and practical education take place inside the school and, consequently, any contact with the labour market is very limited indeed. As for the VTIs, the relevant provision is that they should offer initial as well as on-going vocational training and the Law states that practice should take place in enterprises.

The OAED provides the following forms of vocational training: the Apprenticeship, which is directed towards 15-21 year-olds who have completed their nine-year compulsory education. In this system the teaching of theory takes place in the OAED's educational units and practice in enterprises. Due to the limited number of jobs available in which the Apprenticeship students might carry out their practical training, Apprenticeship places are few; as the number of applicants is much higher than the number of places, a selection examination is necessary for the entry of candidates to the OAED's Apprenticeship schools. Next, there is Adult Technical Vocational Training, which is directed at persons aged 16-45. Entry requirements to such schools vary according to occupational speciality but it is

noteworthy that entry to most specialities does not require the Gymnasion leaving certificate. Both theory and practicals take place in the OAED's educational units. As the number of training places is limited, candidates are selected based on their suitability for the occupation as well as on socio-economic criteria (priority is given to candidates of low socio-economic level).

In addition, some other public agencies supply informal vocational training in sectors within their competency (agriculture, tourism, merchant navy, police, etc.). According to the Constitution, Education is an important function of the state and is, therefore, offered gratis at any level. As regards primary and secondary education, however, the operation of private educational establishments is allowed — subject to obtaining a licence — and these are mainly found in towns and cities. At Tertiary level, the Constitution explicitly forbids private education. This matter is the object of political dialogue and intense argument, given that the government at that time had announced the creation of private Universities in its programme.

To conclude this chapter, it is essential to make certain observations. The level of education of the Greek population has improved impressively. Illiteracy has been reduced and the education system has covered large sections of the population. It has been the policy of all post-war governments to extend and further develop public education. The education system — general as well as vocational — has not instituted routes of transition from education to work. The only exception here is found in the OAED's Apprenticeship schools.

1.3 The Labour Market

In the pages that follow, we will attempt a brief outline of the employment situation from 1950 until today. The evolution of employment in this period constitutes the experience which formed today's prevailing attitudes and perceptions relevant to occupational integration and guidance. The current situation in the labour market and some forecasts for the future make up the reality into which VG policy and the training of the young must be adapted.

Following the civil war (1949), Greece had to face enormous socio-economic problems: a

very low standard of living, huge inequalities between urban and rural sectors as regards both income and working conditions and a large surplus workforce in the countryside. The high rate of economic advancement, industrial development, as well as the marked internal migration — 17% of the population moved to the cities, mainly Athens, in the 1960s — resulted in substantially improving living conditions, especially in rural areas. However, the rural workforce, which moved to urban areas, had a very low standard of education; it was not able to make the best of the jobs created in industry, which had greater need of skilled technicians (Karantinos, 1990).

Thus, a large part of these internal migrants remained unemployed; emigration provided the let out from this situation. 1,5 million Greeks of working age emigrated (to Germany, USA, Canada, Australia, etc.) in the period 1955-70. As for the workforce which stayed in Greece, the main employment opportunities were:

— in industry which, even in the 1960s and 1970s and contrary to the situation prevailing in OECD countries, continued creating jobs;

— through the gradual extension of the service industry, particularly in the public sector which became over-large in the 1970s and 1980s (Ioannou, 1991).

Up to about 1974, a feature of the Greek economy had been the fast pace of development and a low unemployment rate. After 1974, there are apparent signs of deterioration in the basic economic indices such as the GDP rate of increase, the rate of inflation and unemployment. Emigration stopped as from 1970 and, after 1974, we see a return home of emigrants. Throughout these years, the highest rates of employment growth were noted in the tertiary sector and involved requirements for a high standard of education (banking, etc.). It should be noted, though, that in absolute numbers the greatest increase of employment was in occupations requiring medium standards of education or less (secondary education level or lower). These occupations (manufacturing, tourism, etc.) employed a higher proportion of women, whose share in the workforce had greatly increased in any case, during this period (Karantinos, 1990). After 1985, however, unemployment began to dominate the labour market. The present day structure and particularities of the Greek labour market are shown

in Tables 1, 2 and 3.

TABLE 1

Percentages of economically active population, 1989

Total	M*	F*	Urban Areas	M	F	Semi-Urban Areas	M	F	Rural Areas	M	F
49,7	65,6	35,1	47,1	63,8	32,3	51,2	69,4	33,9	55,5	68,3	43,0

Source: Workforce Survey, 1989

* M: Males
F: Females

TABLE 2

The employed of each sector as percentages of total employed, 1987-1989

Sectors of Economic Activity	1987	1988	1989
Total	100,0	100,0	100,0
Primary	27,0	26,6	25,3
Secondary	28,0	27,2	27,5
Tertiary	45,0	46,2	47,1

Source: Workforce Survey, 1989

If we may recap briefly the main findings of labour market research, we would point out that employment in Greece presents certain particularities and structural problems. Firstly, despite the significant reduction in the primary sector during recent decades, a quarter of the workforce continues to be employed in agriculture. Secondly, due to limited industrialisation, only a quarter of the workforce is employed in industry. Of those in industry, about 50%

are employed in the food industry, clothes/shoes and textiles, from which only the first may now be described as developing, whereas the other two are retreating (Ioannou, 1991).

TABLE 3

The overall structure of employment in Greek society, 1987

	Total	Employers	Self-employed	Employed	Unpaid Workers
			(Breakdown by %)		
Total	100,00	5,48	29,94	49,86	14,71
Agriculture, etc.	26,98	0,78	14,41	1,06	10,73
Mines, etc.	0,68	0,02	0,02	0,64	0,01
Manufacture	19,89	1,75	3,41	13,68	1,05
Electricity, etc.	0,97	0,00	0,00	0,97	0,00
Construction	6,45	0,63	1,23	4,52	0,07
Commerce, etc.	16,46	1,49	6,70	5,78	2,49
Transport, etc.	6,78	0,19	1,59	4,89	0,11
Banking, etc.	4,04	0,34	1,07	2,54	0,08
Other Services	17,70	0,28	1,50	15,76	0,16
Not Stated	0,03	0,01	0,00	0,02	0,00

Source: Workforce Survey, 1987

Thirdly, we note a bloated and over-large growth in commercial intermediary and unproductive activities and the same applies to the public sector. Fourthly, wage earners only make up 50% of the total workforce, while 30% is made up of the self-employed and 14,7% accounts for the unpaid and assisting members of households. Finally, women's participation in the workforce, in spite of its great increase, continues to be well below the EC average.

As already mentioned, unemployment rose significantly between 1979 and 1983 and from 1985 onwards, begins to dominate Greek society with a trend for a small but continuous increase.

TABLE 4

Unemployment, 1991

Urban Areas	10,01
Athens	10,57%
Thessaloniki	9,09%
Other Urban Areas	9,64%
Rural	4,14%
Average	8,12%

Source: Workforce Survey, 1991

According to GSS workforce surveys, unemployment stands at 8,12% (1991) and is much higher in urban than rural areas (Table 4). Statistics of employment, however, must be interpreted with much caution in Greece. The conventional definition of unemployment only holds for employed wage earners who make up only 50% of total employment figures and are mainly concentrated in towns and cities and not to the self employed and the contributing members of their families, who mainly characterise rural areas, i.e., where unemployment appears to be rather low. For this reason, the real unemployment rate is estimated at nearly 10% and there is a danger that it will climb higher in the next few years. Similarly to other OECD countries, unemployment in Greece appears to be due more to the economic recession which began after 1974 (Karantinos, 1988) and less to structural problems. There are also some indications of an increase in structural unemployment due to a disharmony between supply and demand. There exists an increasing supply of labour by young men and women which cannot be utilised because they do not offer the appropriate occupational and educational qualifications (Ziomas, 1989).

The main features of unemployment, as shown in Table 5, are:

first, that it is not uniformly distributed between the different demographic groups. Young people and women suffer much more from unemployment than other population groups. In

1991 61% were women and, of those, 32% belonged in the 20-24 year-old age group, while the respective proportion for men was 18% (Table 5). In Community countries generally, the breakdown of unemployment by sex shows the deterioration in women's employment but, according to Eurostat data, Greece seems to head the list. The rise in unemployment for the under-25 year-olds in our country is also impressive, as shown by Histogram 1. Based on interim GSS data for the second quarter of 1991 it shows that, firstly, the unemployment rate for young people under 25 in the second quarter of 1991 reached 27%, compared with 23,1% for the equivalent period of the previous year. Conversely, the average unemployment of young people in EC countries was 17,8%, compared with 17,1% in the respective periods. Secondly, it shows that long-term unemployment has risen significantly in recent years. Whereas in 1981, 10,7% of the unemployed had been without a job for longer than 12 months, in 1989 we have 58% of unemployed women and 41% of unemployed men out of work for a period longer than 12 months (Karantinos, 1990).

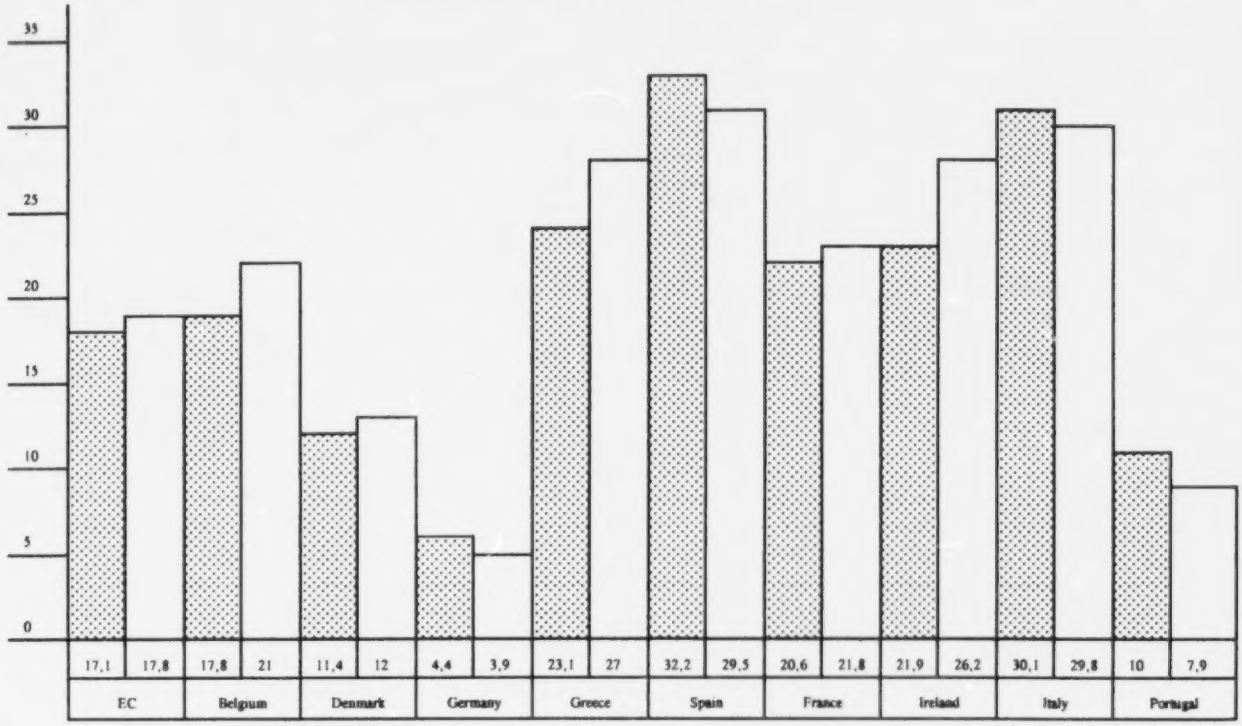
TABLE 5

Population aged 14 and over by employment situation, age and sex (for whole of Greece, 2nd quarter) (In '000)

	Workforce	Employed	Unemployed
	1991	1991	1991
TOTAL	3.965,3	3.643,1	322,2
Aged under 25	547,2	400,6	146,6
Aged 25 and over	3.418,1	3.242,5	175,6
MEN	2.494,2	2.371,3	122,8
Aged under 25	239,4	242,5	50,9
Aged 25 and over	2.200,7	2.128,8	71,9
WOMEN	1.471,1	1.271,7	199,4
Aged under 25	257,7	161,4	96,3
Aged 25 and over	1.213,4	1.110,3	103,1

Histogram 1

Unemployed aged under 25 (% Men and Women)



September 1990

September 1991

Source: Eurostat, GSS

Second Quarter 1990 and 1991

Thirdly, turning now to the relationship between unemployment and standards of education, the groups which suffer the most are, in the first place, those who hold only a Lykeion leaving certificate, with those who have only completed primary education coming next (Table 6), while those at the opposite ends of the scale (persons with post-graduate titles and those who either have no schooling at all or did not complete primary education) suffering the least. Fourthly, a relatively recent feature of Greek unemployment is that whole areas

show a high unemployment rate (40%) due to de-industrialisation. Fifthly, after 1989 unemployment intensified even more due to the continuous influx of foreign workers from Poland, Romania, Bulgaria, Albania, the ex-USSR and eastern Europe. To these we can add the return of people of Greek descent from the ex-USSR (people from the Pontus) and Albania (people of northern Epirus).

TABLE 6

The unemployed in 1991, by sex and level of education, for the whole of Greece, in '000

LEVEL OF EDUCATION	TOTAL	%	BY SEX			
			MEN	%	WOMEN	%
Both sexes	301,0		120,7		180,3	
Holding postgraduate qualification	1,6	0,53	1,0	0,8	0,6	0,3
HEE graduates	29,8	9,9	10,6	8,8	19,2	10,6
Current/past HEE students	7,6	2,5	3,3	2,7	4,3	2,4
HTVS graduates	23,0	7,6	9,2	7,6	13,8	7,6
2ndary education leaving certificate	121,3	40,3	43,7	36,2	77,6	43,0
Completed year 3 of 6-year Gymnasion	34,8	11,6	17,0	14,1	17,8	9,9
Holding elementary school leaving certificate	72,8	24,2	31,1	25,8	41,7	23,1
Did not complete elementary school	7,3	2,4	3,2	2,6	4,1	2,3
Never attended school	2,3	0,8	1,3	1,1	1,0	0,5

Source: GSS, Workforce Survey

It is common knowledge that the Greek economy is in dire straits. The tried and trusted openings cannot be utilised because they were exhausted long ago. The primary sector will continue to decline or, at any rate, it is out of the question to create new jobs in it. As for the public sector — which is bloated and defective — it has already begun charting an inverse course. Emigration is no longer an answer because unemployment is a global phenomenon. On the contrary, many low level jobs are taken by the foreign workers flooding into the country who, although illegal, are cheaper labour. The only solution to the employment

problem may come from industrial development but, at present, there are no such indications in the form of dynamic and developing industrial sectors (Ioannou, 1991).

1.4 Attitudes — Values

In the following chapter, we describe the most important values and perceptions of modern Greek society which influence young people's occupational choices and careers today.

The dominant value in this society is respect for intellectual work and contempt for technical and manual work. This is expressed by the often uncritical preference of young people for university studies and academic occupations. Much empirical research, as well as general experience, has pointed to this phenomenon. As an example, we would mention a paper by Dimitropoulos, 1985, where it is shown that the vast majority of young people in the final Lykeion year — 95% — wish to continue in Tertiary education. As is natural, objectively speaking, a proportion of these pupils has only a minimal probability of entry. Remarkably, this choice is not influenced by whether they are boys or girls nor by the occupation and standard of education of their parents. More recent research also confirms this finding (Karma, Dragona, Kostaki, 1988). It is a fact that, historically and, more particularly, post-1960, the education system, its secondary and mainly its highest level, have been seen and have functioned as mechanisms for social advancement. Thus, the notion that university education is the key to social and occupational integration prevails and governs, even today, the occupational choices of young people, even though the factors which created it no longer exist (Aristodimou-Iakovidou, 1989). As for pay, the gap between graduates and non-graduates is continuously shrinking, while there are several technical occupations with better pay than professional occupations. Thus, education, which began as a means for social integration and progress, has in real terms become an end in itself which secures social prestige. Furthermore, the pursuit of a university degree secures social recognition and proof of status not only for the individual concerned but also for the whole family.

This view is reinforced by findings from the research of Georgas *et al.*, who state that despite the strong wish for university education, the expectations and image held by final year

Lykeion pupils concerning university and its studies are low and negative.

For the above reasons, the education system has been and remains a serious matter of social and political dialogue. The pressure on governments of the day for an increase in educational places resulted in the founding of many regional universities and an excessive increase in student numbers. Both these factors led to a qualitative down-grading of Tertiary education.

Deriving from the respect for intellectual work is the contempt for technical-manual work, which stretches to an undervaluing of technical-vocational and technological education. It is worth noting that, while in the ex-West Germany approximately 75% of the pupil population opts for a technical-vocational education, in Greece the respective proportion is of the order of 20%. Much research shows that, when young people opt for a TVL or a TEI training, they mostly do so not as a positive action but as a choice of necessity. As regards those who opt for a TVL, necessitated by their poor performances at school, studying at a TVL is the easier option and, at the same time, for some pupils it provides an opportunity of entering a TEI without entrance exams. As for the TEIs, a very small proportion of pupils truly wish to study there but, for the most part, they finish up in a TEI because they do not accumulate the requisite grades for university entry. A comparatively high proportion of the student population in both the TVLs and the TEIs comes from lower socio-economic strata.

The careers of young people with secondary and higher standard of education are also dominated by the concern to secure a permanent and stable employment and this is expressed through the pursuit of permanent employment in public sector services. The primary rôle of security and permanence of employment may be connected to the fact that unemployment is considered the most important problem in Greece. It may also be the result of the limited chances and possibilities of employment offered by the private sector. It is worth noting that there are indications (Georgas *et al.*, 1991) that the children of parents with low level education express a greater preference for a career in the public sector than do children of parents with secondary and higher education. This, however, is valid for the children's wishes, not those of the parents who, independently of their own standard of education, wish their children to have a career in the public sector due to the security offered.

Finally, it would seem that there are still significant differences in the values attached by men and women to an occupational career. While an occupation and a career counts for more in the life of young women — their share in the workforce has risen, their academic performance is impressive and betters men's — the rôle of wife, housekeeper and mother does not show a proportionate decrease. Family, bringing up children, home-making, all continue to be almost the exclusive responsibility of women. The creation of a family is very important — more so in women's lives than in men's — and it interferes dramatically with their decision as to occupation. A woman's career follows the logic of a dual rôle, i.e., it has to be combined and not conflict with the basic rôle of her sex as wife and mother. Work is of secondary importance in a woman's life compared to her rôle within the family.

It is well known that attitudes, perceptions and the relevant value system is transmitted to the young during the process of socialisation by two basic institutions: the family and the school. The family is the first social group into which the individual integrates and in which it develops for many years and it is unique. Its rôle forming attitudes, perceptions and values relevant to occupation and career is definitive, as has been pointed out by many researchers abroad. In a society like the Greek one, which retains many traditional elements, the family has a principal rôle in young people's VG concerns. The family is the dominating value in Greek society and children are extremely important for the Greek family, whose life is organised and turns around children and their development. The education of young people absorbs a huge portion of family resources — moral, social, material — and this support by the parents continues for many years after the children have formally come of age.

Such research as asked young people to reply on whether they were influenced by their parents concerning their occupational decisions found that the response was that they made their decisions based on their interests and inclinations and not their parents' wishes. However, an interesting piece of research (Moustaka Kasimati, 1984) states that 60% of parents wished their children to receive university education. Another interesting finding is that only 5% of parents would allow their children to decide by themselves concerning their studies and their future. Apart from research that could be mentioned here, it is the general experience of all who deal with education subjects and VG that there are daily proofs that the choice of studies and occupation is, to a large extent, a family affair. The high demand for

higher education in Greece is mostly the result of the effect of parental ambitions not those of the children. The family has exercised and continues to exercise often unbearable pressure on the young, compelling them to enter Tertiary education as the sole opening of social validation. At the same time, the child is subjected to the perception that the technician is a failure, one who "does not take to learning".

The school, instead of correcting the negative points of family intervention, reinforces them and makes matters worse. Most primary and secondary school teachers had themselves been pupils of general studies and they propagate the rejection of technical trades, consciously or unconsciously, explicitly or implicitly. Furthermore, the learning process and the ideological content of education, educational practices and teaching methods, in fact, the whole education system gives the impression that its goal is to prepare pupils for higher studies (Aristodimou-Iakovidou, 1989).

It would be an omission not to mention at this point that the situation prevailing in technical and vocational education is, to a certain extent, responsible for its rejection by the young and their families and for their preference of general education. The government itself admits that the existing vocational education and training system is inadequate and does not serve national needs, especially as regards the mid-level workforce. In addition, the absorption of technical vocational education graduates by enterprises is assessed as low to medium.

All the above mainly concern the general values held by Greek society but these are directly related to the present day choices made by young people. What are the work-related values of the young themselves today? How important is work in their lives compared with other values? Has any tendency for change in work-related values been noticed recently similar to that observed internationally?

Research in other countries has shown that there is a trend away from occupation and career-related values and a turn towards those associated with free time and leisure, as well as towards non-materialism. Although the importance of work as a means for self-realisation and proof of worth continues to prevail, there is a crisis among the young concerning "the work ethic". This crisis is attributed to the fact that, although work content has changed and,

in many cases, has become much more pleasant and less arduous than in the past, free time has become much more interesting and attractive than it used to be (Vrettakou, 1991).

There is no research in Greece specifically on the work values of the young. The fact that, in most surveys, the young state that they choose their occupation with their interests, inclinations and abilities as the main criteria and base it less on the expected financial gain is an indication that they consider work more a means of self-realisation than a livelihood. Additionally, the fact that unemployment is currently considered the greatest problem facing the young, shows that work continues to be very important to them. Yet, although there is no relevant research, there is a widespread view that the young, in spite of the economic crisis and unemployment, do not work as hard as young people of previous generations, they are not prepared to invest the same labour or make sacrifices in their personal lives in order to secure a sound career.

Both indications and data are minimal. The work-associated values of today's young people can only be discovered through empirical research. However, the general economic situation is so bad that there is very little probability that material and work values will cede their position to non-materialistic work values in the near future. It is more likely that, as youth unemployment increases, so will the importance of work in their lives.

Chapter 2

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

VG is mainly the responsibility of two agencies, the MNER and the OAED. The MNER is responsible for VG of the pupil population and the OAED for that of the workforce.

2.1 Schools Vocational Guidance (SVG)

The MNER instituted Schools Vocational Guidance (SVG) through Law 307/76 and began to apply it for the first time in schools. This application was limited and experimental at first and was generalised after 1985. Today SVG is applied in the final year, year three, of the Gymnasion, which is the first cycle of secondary education, in years one and two of the GELs and in the first year of the TVLs and IMLs. Law 1566/85 (arts. 37-39) defines the present day application of SVG — its general aims, organisation, manner of application and the educational staff applying it.

In applying SVG, the general aims are: developing the pupils' personality, supplying them with information as regards educational and occupational opportunities and promoting their social and occupational integration. In the SVG school manuals, these aims are supplemented by more specific targets, according to the school class they address. The manner of application of SVG, which is limited to within the school classroom, comprises teamwork between pupils and teachers, provision of educational and vocational information, visits to occupational and educational sites and publication of printed aids for pupils, teachers and parents.

The SVG is organised on three levels:

— the SVG team — executive group — which sits in the Pedagogical Institute. This team devises the detailed courses as well as the VG manuals, sets the general

directions, co-ordinates its application and carries out assessment studies of the institution;

— the secondary education Directorates. In these, the officer responsible for SVG co-ordinates and directs, at county level, the application of SVG;

— the classroom. The class SVG teacher applies the programme worked out by the SVG team. His/Her specific task is to interpret the basic VG concepts, to transmit information related to the education system and to occupations, to organise the pupils' visits to workplaces and to invite practitioners into the classroom.

The person whose function is to apply SVG at any level is a secondary school teacher of any speciality who has received further training in SVG, either in Greece or abroad. As for the officers who comprise the SVG team, they have completed post-graduate studies abroad in the subject of VG. The personnel dealing with SVG in the secondary education Directorates have participated in training seminars lasting 5 months and certain of them have been trained in establishments abroad. Practically, however, the majority of classroom SVG teachers have not had any SVG training at all. According to a Pedagogical Institute survey, only 16% of the teachers applying SVG in the classroom have attended the 5-month seminars.

Secondary education teachers have received SVG training within in-service programmes, which were designed and organised by the SVG team. Such programmes vary in duration from a few days — during the first stages of application — to 5 months. The 5-month seminars have been the most serious and substantial effort at training SVG teachers. The last seminars took place in 1986.

From the above, it transpires that SVG application is strictly standardised and centrally directed by the SVG team. The duties and tasks of SVG personnel are described in the manuals composed by the SVG team. A teacher's undertaking to deal with SVG is neither constant nor continuous. On the contrary, various teachers alternate in this rôle. The criteria determining this alternation are mostly irrelevant to SVG, with the result that the teachers applying it do not have the time to assess and utilise their experiences from its application. Due to the centralised character of SVG application, this does not present even formally any

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significant divergences, either between the centre and regions or between rural, urban and semi-urban areas. Conversely, what may be maintained with some certainty is that there exist enormous qualitative differences in its application, according to whether or not the secondary teacher applying it has received appropriate training.

Most research already carried out — whether old or contemporary — on the assessment of SVG shows clearly its inadequacy and inability to help the young in their educational and occupational choices. A 1987 survey (Kostaki, 1988) of final year Lykeion pupils showed that SVG, as a source of information, took last place — the ninth — amongst the factors that influenced their decision making. Another survey (Pappas, Psaharopoulos, 1990), which targeted final year Lykeion pupils in the Athens area, showed that the pupils assessed the quality of SVG as unsatisfactory. The findings of research by Kalantzi, Tsangari and Karadimas, 1990, point out the weaknesses of SVG: lack of skilled staff, lack of knowledge and information concerning occupations, lack of organisation and seriousness of application. A further piece of research (Georgas, Bezevengis and Yiannitsas, 1991), which examines the part played by nine factors in choosing an occupation, places SVG at the bottom of the list. As for their degree of satisfaction, a sample composed of students responded in the categories "none at all" or "very low".

The only piece of research offering more positive data on SVG is that made by the Pedagogical Institute, carried in 1986 (Tetteri *et al.*, 1989). According to this, 32% of respondents found SVG "very interesting", while 42,5% found it interesting and 25% considered that SVG "had much to offer". It is worth noting that, in this research, rural area pupils found SVG more useful and interesting that did urban pupils. In addition, pupils' interest in SVG is reduced as their performance rises.

To recap, it must be mentioned that the SVG was designed to serve the VG needs of the average pupil in secondary school. Detailed courses, teacher and pupil manuals and study guides are professionally complete, as well as being valuable aids for teachers and for all those who deal with VG within and outside the school. Its application, though, presents many and serious problems, so that it has failed to convince anyone as to its utility. The relevant research, as well as the experience of all who deal directly or indirectly, with this

subject, shows that the help it offers pupils is very limited. The majority of the staff applying it have not been trained for this task, nor are there any long-term plans for such eventual training. SVG has been accused of following foreign, west European models (mainly Anglo-Saxon) and of transferring to Greece a philosophy and practice quite unsuitable for a country where the education system and the entire upbringing and education of young people are, to a large extent, centralised and autocratic. Its contribution to opening up the school to the community, to facilitating lines of communication between the young and the outside world in occupations and the world of work has been minimal. This is not surprising, if we take into account that schools are a world hermetically sealed from professionals (psychologists, social workers, etc.) other than educationalists. Furthermore, the educationalists, during the practice of their profession, do not co-operate outside school with other relevant socially-oriented professions, e.g., social workers, psychologists, sociologists, physicians, etc., with the result that their experiences from the world of work outside school are very few.

2.2 Workforce Vocational Guidance

The OAED is the appropriate agency for workforce VG, as well as for its placement in work (the other competencies of the OAED being the vocational training of the workforce and its insurance against unemployment). The responsibilities of VG are to place the young in work, to develop job opportunities for the young, to inform them concerning opportunities of vocational training and to select candidates for OAED schools through psycho-technical tests.

Law 1346/83 recently extended the application of VG. More specifically, it provides for the creation of active VG programmes for 15-18 year-olds. 1985 saw the foundation of OAED Employment Offices, as well as Offices for the Occupational Rehabilitation for People with Special Needs, the activities of which include VG. There is minimal application of VG, however, in these Offices, due to the lack of specialised personnel. Law 1837/86, on the protection of the employment of minors, in its article 4 provides that all minors, before being employed in any work, must attend VG programmes outside school. This article has not been implemented to date.

The officers dealing with VG within the OAED are called VG counsellors and they are graduates of higher education in humanist studies, specifically trained in VG but there are also several psychologists. The responsibility for their initial and ongoing education resides with the OAED itself. The number of the OAED's VG counsellors is very small (25) and the same applies to its psychologists (6).

At present, the main services provided by the OAED's VG are:

— A personal interview with the young individual, aiming to help him/her choose an occupation.

— The selection of candidates for the OAED's occupational training schools, using interviews and tests of specific abilities.

— The application of active VG programmes. These are group VG programmes directed at 15-18 year-olds who have stopped general education and which aim to help them integrate either into an occupation training programme or into the labour market.

— The placement in work is the task of a very small number of counsellors (2-3), who are positioned either in Employment Offices or in Offices for the Occupational Rehabilitation for People with Special Needs.

— New VG activities developed in recent years are the design and implementation of VG programmes outside the OAED's Services, in co-operation with other agencies (Borstals, the armed forces, local authorities). These programmes aim to respond to the needs of special population groups for VG.

— Finally, an activity of the OAED's central VG Services is to create the information and educational material used in applying VG (VG exercises, pamphlets on occupations, study guides, etc.).

The OAED's VG does not so much address the great mass of young people as those groups

of young persons who face special problems of VG and integration: young unemployed, young who stop going to school, returning emigrants, persons with special needs, etc. VG officers have received substantial initial training in their subject and deal with VG almost continuously. The OAED's VG work is not at all standardised but is multi-faceted and flexible and these features would allow it to respond to new needs emerging daily in the world of employment, if only it were staffed with a satisfactory number of consultants. As this number is very small and unequally distributed throughout the country, it greatly limits the scope of the VG institution so that, in relation to existing needs, the help it offers is minimal.

2.3 Vocational Guidance and Other Agencies

Presidential Decree 274/1989, which formed the basis for the organisation of Services of the Young Generation General Secretariat (YGGS), contains a provision concerning VG. More specifically, the services which it provides for dealing with the guidance of and information for young people are the Employment Development Initiatives Directorate and the Directorate for Supplying Information on Events and International Co-Operation. Due to the economic crisis and the limited financial resources of the YGGS, as well as its recent creation, its contribution to the supply of guidance services and information is highly limited. Yet, it has offered much to the sector of vocational training programmes for young people. This YGGS, funded in part by the European Social Fund, on its own, as well as in co-operation with private agencies, implements a large number of courses of vocational training for the young.

With regard to Tertiary Education, Law 1268/82 provides that every Tertiary Education institution should furnish its students with information concerning their studies at the foundation concerned, their future career and other social services. Despite certain progress in some establishments and schools (Athens School of Philosophy, Pandion University, the Economic University of Athens), the situation is, on the whole, disappointing. The students of such establishments receive no help during their passage through Tertiary Education or during their transition from these establishments to the labour Market.

Chapter 3

TRANSITION OF YOUNG PEOPLE TO ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE LIFE: PROBLEMS AND NEEDS

In this chapter we will focus on the main transitional stages of the great mass of young people: stages at which the young are called upon to make decisions of an educational and occupational nature which will influence their further career. These stages and the situations-difficulties facing the young are the result of the education system, the prevailing attitudes and perceptions and the inadequacy of the institution of VG.

We will refer to the following transitional stages:

1. The end of compulsory education and transition to:
   a. the second cycle of secondary education
   b. vocational training
   c. the labour market.

2. Completion of secondary education and transition to:
   a. tertiary education
   b. vocational education/training
   c. the labour market.

3. Completion of post-Lykeion education/training and the transition to the labour market.

3.1 The Completion of Compulsory Education

The end of the 9-year compulsory education may, in certain cases, be a critical stage for the young. It is not critical for those who continue and complete their education in the second cycle of secondary education unhindered, which is the case for about 55% of Gymnasion pupils. These young people, at this stage, do not face serious problems concerning options

beyond that of attending the appropriate type of Lykeion. As has been mentioned already (Chapter 1.4), given the low prestige of TVLs, young people in most cases only choose these because they have to and due to their poor performance, whereas the majority, without any special problems or guidance, heads for the GELs and a small number for the IMLs.

The end of the Gymnasion is a critical stage for 15-17 year-olds, who either cease their general education at this point (these are estimated to be 25-30% of the pupil population of Gymnasion year 3) or drop out of the Lykeion classes (approx. 20-23% of those who enter Lykeion do not finish it). It is noted that the greatest wastage at the Lykeion occurs between years 1 and 2. This group either heads for vocational training or attempts to enter the labour market. It includes, beyond the "expected" population, deprived groups of young people, such as persons with special needs, returning emigrants, as well as those young people who abandon compulsory education without completing it (drop-outs). So, what situation and problems do these young people face and from where does the help arrive, if it does, to solve them?

A dominant problem for this group is the lack of information and counselling: information concerning the possibilities of vocational education/training as well as the labour market, the nature of occupations to which such instruction leads and concerning how far such occupations correspond to their interests and wishes. Although this essential information exists in printed form, it is more appropriate for SVG teachers to utilise than the young themselves. In addition, apart from a general presentation of this printed material in the classroom, the pupils are not helped on a personal basis to assess it and choose the openings suited to their person. Furthermore, due to the fact the Gymnasion education is highly theory bound, the young do not have the experience in practical content, techniques or arts and crafts activities which could help them to discover some special abilities and interests within themselves to make suitable vocational choices. All this results in the problem of information and guidance failing to be faced in good time but instead being dealt with at the last moment, mainly by the family and its circle of acquaintances. SVG does not appear to play a significant rôle here, whereas the OAED's VG Services — where they exist — receive a large number of young people with their parents seeking information. These Services are very few, inadequately staffed and in no position to serve anyone except those young people

who are candidates for the OAED's Apprenticeship schools. If the experience gained by and information available to young people as concerns opportunities of vocational training are lacking, then an even worse situation faces those who wish to find work. Such young people have no experience whatsoever and no information on the labour market: which occupations offer jobs? What is the importance of vocational education for their careers? How should they go about seeking work? What sorts of job suit their preferences and abilities? What rights and obligations do they have as workers, etc.?

The only effort being made to cover these needs is the OAED's active VG programmes, which have been described briefly in Chapter 2.2. These programmes are implemented only once a year and to a highly limited scale. Extension of similar programmes could offer substantial help to these groups of young people. In addition, if the OAED were to implement article 4 of Law 1837/86, which is not implemented at present, it would offer valuable help to the young in this group. We would remind the reader that this article provides for the supply of VG services to young entrants to the labour market.

All the above named problems become more acute when they concern special groups of young people, such as young immigrants or people of Greek descent returning home, persons with special needs, etc. The few special services set up by the OAED for the two latter categories are not enough. Their number must be increased significantly and the relevant personnel must receive suitable training so as to respond satisfactorily to the demands of their task.

Turning now to people with special needs, there is no state system of vocational training. Their training is mainly reliant upon private initiative which, in recent years, has received funding from Community programmes. Accordingly, people with special needs take priority as regards entry either to the already extant vocational training programmes or, if their disability allows it, to such training provided by private, non-profit making agencies. As regards the services on offer to people with special needs, a problem is that this population has not been counted until very recently: how many are they? What are their disabilities? What institutions serve them, etc.? Such data were absolutely essential to designing and organising guidance and vocational training programmes suited to their needs. A study

aiming to enumerate them was begun some years ago but its results have yet to be announced.

To help individuals of Greek descent, who in recent years — from 1990 on — returned from the ex-Soviet Union and Albania, the National Institute for the Reception and Rehabilitation of Greek Stock (NIRRGS) has been set up to facilitate their integration and vocational rehabilitation. This institute deals mainly with people from the ex-Soviet Union, estimated to number 50.000, 25% of whom are approximately 16-28 years of age (there are no data on the educational standard of these persons). It is in the charge of NIRRGS to establish these people now returning to the land of their ancestry in reception settlements for as long as necessary and until they are independent and rehabilitated. During their stay in the settlements, they are provided with Greek language lessons. The young people of this category are brought into the Greek education system: general education for those under 16 or vocational training courses for those over 16. As regards their entry into training programmes, they take priority over the general population.

Finally, despite the 9-year compulsory education being legally instituted, a non-negligible proportion of young people, which is higher for boys than for girls, drops out. Family Budget surveys show that children of poor families drop out of compulsory education at a much higher rate than children of non-poor families (Section 4.2). These young people are often functionally illiterate and the formal VG system, as well as vocational training, provides nothing for them. It is worth mentioning that, although girls drop out of compulsory education at a lower rate, they, in fact, enter programmes of vocational training in a much lower proportion than boys because the specialities in which vocational training is provided do not usually fit the occupational stereotypes of girls. It must be pointed out that, on the whole, the state does not appear to cope with the above problem, despite the fact the European statistics (Eurostat) show Greece topping the list in the proportion of young people dropping out of compulsory education. The appropriate ministry has no substantial data and the few data that do exist come from isolated pieces of research[1].

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[1] These are dealt with in a special chapter.

3.2 The Completion of Secondary Education

The second critical transitional stage is the end of secondary education and, specifically, the Lykeion, from which approximately 100.000 emerge annually. Prevailing perceptions, family pressure, as well as the absence of other satisfactory openings, lead about 80% of these young to the entrance examinations for Tertiary education. The social pressure in this direction is such that one could say that the majority of the young is not free to make another choice. The only option available to them is to pick one amongst the four directions available at the entrance exams — the four subject-groups, as they are known — each of which leads to specific faculties of Tertiary education. In addition and at the same time as opting for a subject group, they choose the faculty — in order of priority — which they wish to enter. They make these choices mostly unaided by the VG system on their own or with family help.

3.2.1 University Entrance Exams: the Rôle of the Private Preparatory Centres

It is generally accepted that the Lykeion has lost its own purpose and, to a large extent, functions as a preparatory stage for success in Tertiary education entrance exams. This very preparation takes place at the school only as a matter of form, whereas, in substance, it actually occurs in private preparatory centres or through private lessons. Research has shown that 75-80% of those who are successful in entering tertiary education had attended private crammers (*frondistiria*), private lessons or a combination of the two. Other research shows that 90% approx. of students consider *frondistiria* essential or, at any rate, helpful because they supplement the weaknesses of the Greek educational system. It is obvious that access to public Tertiary education relies to a great extent on the Greek family's means to pay the expense necessitated by this preparation. Table 7 shows the extent of sacrifice to which the Greek family is subjected and which begins at the first cycle of secondary education, the Gymnasion. It is emphasised that 30% of Gymnasion pupils also attend private *frondistiria* and so does 60% of the early Lykeion classes and the total of pupils in Lykeion year three.

This year (1993), 146.475 pupils took the Tertiary education entrance exam and, of those, 42.124 were successful, the rest remaining unaided and beset by problems concerning their next course of action. It is also noted that, for those entering Tertiary education, there is no

possibility of changing faculty should the faculty which they have entered not correspond with their expectations. Additionally, their adaptation to the demands of this new educational level, as well as their entire career in it, is not facilitated by specific counselling services because these do not exist except in extremely few faculty schools. It would be

TABLE 7

Tutorial schools ("frondistiria"), pupils and annual private expenditure

Frondistiria (Private Tutorial Schools)	Pupil numbers	Private expenditure
Offering secondary school subjects + private lessons	350.000	87 billion
Offering foreign languages	570.00	46 billion
Purchase of relevant materials		30-40 billion

Source: Union of Tutorial School Owners

interesting to know the percentage dropping out of Tertiary education but this cannot be estimated because students are not expelled after a given number of failures but, as long as they enrol in their faculty school, continue to be students for as long as they wish. It is also obvious that the likelihood of a student wilfully abandoning his/her studies is minimal, due to the social pressure exerted.

Although in the last 15 years several education reforms have removed the processes of selection which existed between primary school and Gymnasion initially and, later, between Gymnasion and Lykeion, this has not, as might have been expected, led to the removal of inequalities (at the expense of low socio-economic classes) of access to education. On the contrary, such little research as has been done clearly indicates that this inequality has simply shifted to the higher levels of education, with the inequality of access to Higher Education increasing significantly. We would mention, as an example, that a piece of research on social inequality in Tertiary Education (Chrysakis, 1991) confirms that in 1978-79, students whose father had highest level education had a chance 4 times greater of access to the HEEs,

compared with those whose father held a primary school certificate; in 1982-83 they had a chance 5,75 times greater and in 1987-88, a chance 9 times greater. Social inequality increased significantly between the years 1979 and 1989. A similar situation obtains when the father's occupation is taken as the criterion of social derivation. The trend of increase in inequality of access to higher education over time is even greater when we consider certain high prestige faculties, such as medical schools (from 10 times to 40 times) and schools of the Polytechnic (from 10 times to 29 times).

Another topic well worth mentioning in this context is the large participation of young women in Tertiary education. Table 8 shows the evolution of participation rates of the two sexes between 1960 and 1990 and the impressive increase of female participation in Tertiary education. This picture, however, as well as the huge success of girls in winning "first place", achieved every year in the Tertiary education exam, conceals the enormous

TABLE 8

The student population, by sex (1960-1992)

	1960-61 %	1970-71 %	1980-81 %	1990-91 %
Boys	74,6	68,1	57,6	48,9
Girls	25,4	31,9	42,4	51,1

Source: GSS, Statistics of Education
GSS, Press Bulletin for Tertiary Education

differentiation which counts against them, connected with the kind of education chosen by women. Women choose studies which do not secure sound careers. As an indication only, we present Table 9, which shows clearly that the mass orientation of girls is towards the Humanities and Philosophy and very rarely towards Engineering, Mechanical Engineering, etc. It is noteworthy that the greatest number of female Polytechnic students are in the School of Architecture, while the other engineering faculties have a very low participation by women.

TABLE 9

Spread of the student population according to sex (1987-88)

	Total	Girls	Girls' proportion of the total
National Metsovion Polytechnic (Engineering)	7.724	2.006	25,9%
Athens School of Philosophy	8.223	7.030	85,5%
School of Pedagogical Studies Athens University	1.384	1.116	80,6%

Source: GSS, Statistical Annual 1989

So what openings are available to the 100.000 approx. young people who fail to enter Tertiary education and through what services are they informed and guided so as to choose the solution that suits them? The options offered to the young in this group are the following:

1. To take the exams for entry into HEEs/TEIs the following year, which is attempted by a large number of young people. Every year approx. 50% of candidates for Tertiary education entry are those who failed in previous years.

2. To enrol in a vocational training programme for adults operated by the OAED or in a TVS or TVL. These solutions apply to a small number of young people — mainly boys — because these openings offer training of a lower level than that of the Lykeions.

3. To receive training in private post-Lykeion schools.

4. To go to university abroad.

5. To enter the labour market.

3.2.2 The Private Free Studies Centres

As already mentioned, the Greek education system has an important gap in the area of post-Lykeion occupational training. This gap has been and continues to be covered by private vocational education and, specifically, by the Free Studies Centres (FSCs), as they are called. These make available all forms of informal vocational education and training, from fast-stream short courses to courses lasting several years, in co-operation with foreign educational establishments. The FSCs are not recognised by the state and, therefore, are not under the MNER. As they are not obliged to deposit their student registers with any public authority, the number of the students is not known. The FSCs have most appropriately been called *terra incognita*; their student number is estimated by the Panhellenic Union of Free Studies Centres to be approx. 25-30.000, from which about 30% are reckoned to be boys and 70% girls. The FSCs have two serious weaknesses: firstly, attendance does not entitle boys to postpone their national service and, secondly, they do not secure occupational rights for their graduates. The specialities for which training is provided are many and varied — most belong in the service sector and a few in industry — but all of them lead to occupations without established vocational rights.

The recent Law 2009/92 created the VTIs, intending to fill the gap in post-Lykeion vocational education. They provide training in a variety of specialisations — initial and on-going — at post-Lykeion level. Last year the first 15 public VTIs began operation and this year a further 22 will be launched in county capitals. This year a further 44 private VTIs should be added, which are none other than those FSCs which meet the requirements prescribed by the relevant ministerial decision. It is still too early to assess whether this vocational education reform will succeed in offering high quality training, so that it becomes socially recognised and absorbs a large number of young people who fail to enter Tertiary education.

3.2.3 Students' Emigration

A remarkable phenomenon related to this target group and, in particular, with the inability

of Greek universities to absorb a greater number of students, is the emigration of Greek students, or student mobility, as it is called. This occurrence, which is noted in other countries too, has reached enormous dimensions in Greece (G. Psaharopoulos, 1987; M. Iliou, 1988; A. Kalamatianou, 1990; Lampiri-Dimaki, 1993; ICAP, 1992), with the result that we top the list in exporting students, mainly for undergraduate studies. Based on the data of the Foreign Exchange Service of the Bank of Greece, approximately 10.000 young people were studying abroad in 1970; this figure trebles for 1976 and more than quadruples (44.465) up to 1982, at which point it became the equivalent of 50% of students in Greece. As from 1983, the number of Greek undergraduates abroad has declined, coinciding with an increase of places in Greek universities. The latest Bank of Greece data (1990) give the figure for Greek students abroad as 32.068 (equivalent to 18-20% of those studying in Greece). An examination of these data over time shows that, on a consistent basis, approx. 60% of such students are undergraduates, while post-graduates account for 20-25%. Preference for countries shows Italy in first place, with Britain, the USA, France and West Germany next on the list. After 1979, we note students turning to eastern countries, mainly for physical education courses but for a few others as well.

It is noteworthy that, over time, the subjects consistently preferred by Greeks studying abroad are Medicine, Architecture, the Law and other faculties of engineering, whereas subjects not covered a few years ago by Greek universities — Journalism, Textiles, Marine Studies — and certain others still not covered by the HEEs and the TEIs did not and still do not attract students going abroad.

This high student mobility is attributed more to the wish by the young and their families to gain a university degree — if they could get it in Greece they would not go abroad — rather than a wish for education of a better quality. This is clearly shown by the drop in the number of undergraduates studying abroad in the period 1983-86, when there was a proportionate rise in the number of Greek university entry places. Finally, we would point out three effects of student mobility, two negative and one positive. The enormous economic cost and the loss of trained people — the so-called "brain drain" — who remain and make a career abroad, due to better pay are the negative sides. On the other hand, an important gain accruing from student mobility is that the high number of young people who study

abroad bring back to Greece valuable cultural benefits, through which Greek society is enriched (Lampiri-Dimaki, 1993).

A large number of young people emerging from secondary education, perhaps the largest number of secondary education leavers, attempt to enter the labour market. They seek jobs having a satisfactory level of general knowledge but unequipped with any vocational training. As mentioned in the analysis of the Greek labour market, these young people comprise the highest proportion of the unemployed and, furthermore, secondary education school leavers top the list of long-term unemployed (42%), which is much higher (52%) when we refer to the age group of 15-25 year-olds.

3.2.4 Guidance Needs

From the above, we see that this group of young people has serious problems concerning information and VG. As shown by labour market data, if they stay at Lykeion-level education, they are highly likely to remain unemployed in the long term and run the risk of marginalisation. Turning to the young who study abroad, they need information not only concerning foreign education systems and living conditions but also with regard to subjects for study which offer occupational openings within Greece. Finally, those opting for private post-Lykeion schools need timely information, at present not provided anywhere. The official VG agencies (OAED-MNER) do not provide information on private schools because these are not recognised by the state. Therefore, students and their parents depend for information on the advertising leaflets put out by the private schools themselves, which is not always valid.

The only services to which this group of young people could turn for information are the OAED's VG Services and Employment Offices. In practice, however, this group does not go to these Services for information and guidance but only when it is interested in training in the OAED's schools or when seeking work.

3.3 The Completion of Post-Lykeion Education

The third critical transitional stage is the end of Tertiary Education — also the end of private post-Lykeion education — when the young are transferred to the labour market. Although labour market data do not show this group as facing particular unemployment problems, certain caution has been shown concerning its apparently satisfactory absorption by the labour market. It is maintained that extending the education system at its higher levels leads to inferior educational qualifications. Thus, HEE graduates do not appear as unemployed because, due to the unemployment situation, they are obliged to accept positions requiring lower qualifications. Thus, the effects of unemployment simply shift to lower education levels.

As stated above, neither the HEEs nor the TEIs have information or counselling services to help their students. Furthermore, no other institutions exist within HEEs — e.g., short-term student employment — to facilitate the transition of students from Tertiary education to the labour market. In the TEIs, the practical side included in study courses may be considered as institutionalising the students' contact with the world of work and helps their occupational establishment to some degree.

Turning to university studies, it is accepted that the lack of contact or lines of communication between the academic community and enterprises creates problems for the vocational establishment of young graduates. These young people are not informed in time what their knowledge and educational equipment counts for in the labour market. They do not even know employers' demands and expectations so as to adapt accordingly their own expectations and choices with regard to subjects and specialisations to follow. At the same time, the lack of contact between universities and the labour market does not help to improve and adapt courses to the developments and needs of the market. Perhaps a unique exception is that of the Student Employment and Careers Office for Graduates of the Economic University of Athens, which has been operating since 1992. This Office aims to inform enterprises as well as students concerning labour market needs. In spite of its brief history, the course it has charted so far is considered highly successful because it has managed to attract the interest of a large number of students as well as employers.

There are no other public services to assist this group of young people. An attempt by the OAED to create an Office for Executive Employment proved unsuccessful. There exists only a certain number of private employment offices for company executives with high qualifications, although this contravenes current legislation.

Chapter 4

YOUNG PERSONS WHO ABANDON COMPULSORY EDUCATION

This chapter deals with a particular group which, in our opinion, faces serious VG and problems in establishing themselves, yet is neglected by the Greek state and by Greek society as a whole. This group is made up of young men and women who, for one reason or another, do not complete the 9-year compulsory education. The problem is complex and related to other problems such as academic failure and functional illiteracy. Published Eurostat data show Greece as leading EC countries in the wastage figures for young people abandoning general education without a leaving certificate.

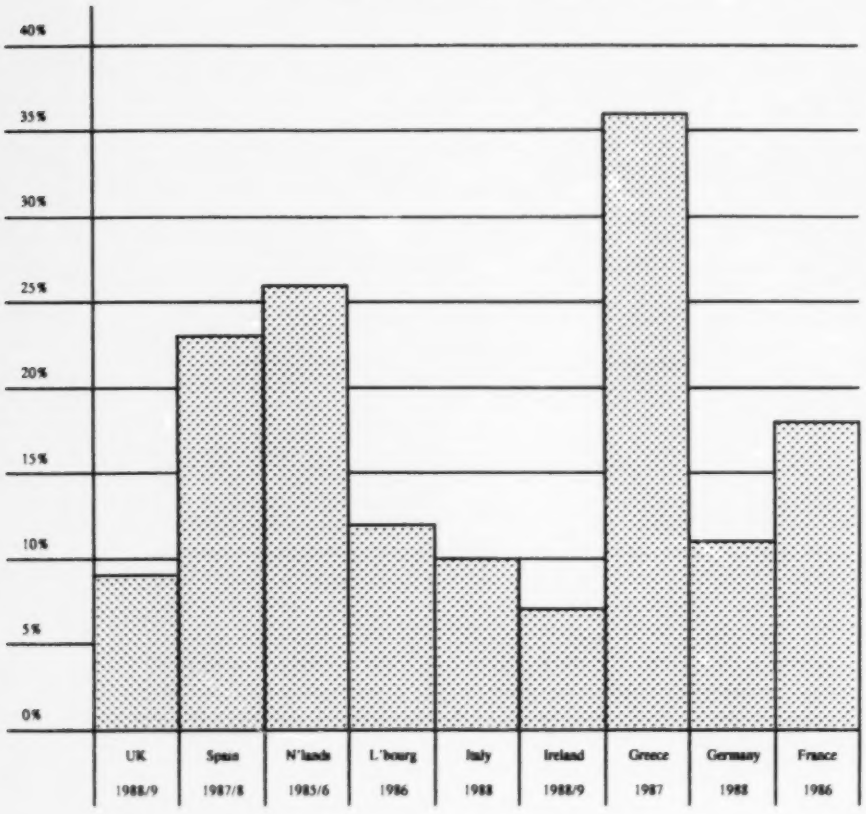
Nevertheless, both data and relevant research are minimal and the appropriate ministry does not deal with such data collection nor with studies on the phenomenon, its extent or causes. Although educational affairs have always been the subject of intense political controversy, this specific problem is not included. With the exception of a few isolated researchers and educationalists, the state and Greek society concern themselves almost exclusively with the possibilities of access to Tertiary education and almost never with the early exclusion of young people from the education system.

A consequence of this refusal by the state to examine the problem systematically is that there are no provisions for this group's VG. All programmes for vocational training which either exist or are in the planning stages presuppose specific formal qualifications (Gymnasion or Lykeion leaving certificate). Some exceptions which do exist will be mentioned at the end of the chapter.

No VG programmes exist especially planned for the needs and problems of these young people. The only exception here are the OAED's active VG programmes, which serve a very small number of young people (500-1.000) and these are not carried out every year. Among SVG courses there is no relevant provision either for preventing or for dealing with this phenomenon.

Histogram 2

Percentage of children who abandon secondary education without a leaving certificate



Source: Commission of the European Communities, Directorate General V

For all the above reasons, we believe that, in Greece, schools' wastage has an enormous social cost, greater than in other countries. This is because those that drop out of the 9-year compulsory education have no other chances to make up the gap in their education, to find their way to another type of school or to another form of vocational training or even to confirm the qualifications they acquired and integrate into some informal further education programme. It is known that knowledge and abilities which are not supplemented or further cultivated tend to atrophy and lead to functional illiteracy.

Thus, those who drop out of compulsory education, unless offered other opportunities for

education and training, run the danger of occupational and social exclusion. They will not have the knowledge or the ability to utilise occupationally or socially the benefits of economic and technological developments. They will not exercise their fundamental political and social rights. They will remain uninformed concerning important social matters. What is the extent of this phenomenon? What population groups and districts suffer the most and to what is it due? What education-training programmes does the Greek state offer to this group?

Obviously, because the subject has not been researched systematically, the available data are fragmented and, as a result, can only offer hints on the subject. Even so, we considered that, in the context of a study dealing with the need for VG, it was worth while examining such few data as exist. These, which will be presented further down, come from the national Greek Statistical Service (GSS) and they are either education data or data from workforce surveys.

4.1 Some Data

It is an undoubted fact that education in Greece has been popularised and that the people's level of education has improved significantly in recent decades. As shown in Table 10, differences in levels of education between younger and older age groups are very big and favour younger people greatly.

TABLE 10

Persons without a Primary School or Gymnasion leaving certificate

AGE	14-18	19-24	25-29	30-44	45-64	65+
Without Primary school leaving certificate	1%	1%	2%	3%	22%	50%
Without Gymnasion leaving certificate	12%	22%	36%	51%	76%	85%

Source: GSS, Workforce Survey, 1988

Since 1980, which effectively marked the start of the 9-year compulsory education and pupils going up a class unhindered, wastage from primary schools has almost disappeared. A very small drop out rate appears to exist between years 5 and 6 of primary school. It is worth noting that the number of girls enrolled in primary school is smaller than that of boys. Yet, workforce surveys continue to show, even in younger age groups, the presence of non-negligible percentages of young people whose academic knowledge is of primary school or less.

TABLE 11

Primary school pupil population by school class
School years 1981-82 - 1986-87

		Pupils		
Year	**School Class**	**Total**	**Boys**	**Girls**
1981-82	Primary Class 1	146.717	75.646	71.071
1982-83	Primary Class 2	146.160	75.648	71.477
1983-84	Primary Class 3	145.953	75.050	70.903
1984-85	Primary Class 4	146.396	75.259	71.137
1985-86	Primary Class 5	146.348	75.260	71.088
1986-87	Primary Class 6	144.259	74.273	69.986

Source: GSS, Statistics of Education

TABLE 12

Young people aged 15-29 whose literacy level is of primary school standard or lower, as % of total school population of their age

Age	Total %	Boys	Girls
15-19	12,1	11,9	12,32
20-24	18,9	17,5	19,69
25-29	29,9	26,6	33,13
Total	20,1	18,6	21,5

Source: Workforce Survey, 1989

Even nowadays, 20% of the whole age range 15-29 has either never attended school or has academic knowledge equivalent only to some primary school classes or a primary school leaving certificate. The overall difference between boys and girls in this group is small and is to the girls' disadvantage but, if we compare it with that obtaining in younger age groups, we discover that the difference is large for the 25-29 year-olds, reducing and reaching almost zero as we progress to younger ages.

An examination of Gymnasion education statistics shows that, in the school year 1985-86, entrants to the Gymnasion numbered 166.094, of whom 123.121 graduated normally (i.e., 74% approx. of the pupil population), while the other 26% approx. did not complete compulsory education. An examination of statistical data by Gymnasion class (Table 13) confirms the following: of the total Gymnasion pupil population, only 47,6% are girls although, in the general population, girls are 51% approximately. The boys' numerical advantage falls from one class to the next, with year 1 of the Gymnasion comprising 46,6% girls, year 2, 47,5% and year 3, 50%. This is accounted for by the fact that, in the overall pupil population, the wastage due to boys dropping out (30,5%) is greater than that of girls (20,5%), which holds for all Gymnasion years. In the overall pupil population, the wastage appears to be greatest between Gymnasion years 1 and 2. For boys, however, this difference is small (13% drop out between years 1 and 2 of the Gymnasion and 11% between years 2 and 3), whereas for girls it is very high (10,5% and 6,9%).

In the Gymnasion year 3, we take to be wastage the number of children who abandon compulsory education without a leaving certificate because they failed to go up a class. This wastage in Gymnasion year 3 is much lower and, in effect, is smaller than indicated by the data because a proportion of the pupils who failed initially resit their exams and finally get the Gymnasion certificate.

The same picture emerges from somewhat older data (Statistics of Education, 1983-84). Those data supply additional information concerning pupils who abandon their studies in the middle of the school year, as well as for those who fail to go up a class. Remarkably, school wastage, as well as academic failure, is much higher for boys than for girls. Unfortunately, analogous recent data have not been published yet.

These data are in agreement with certain earlier research findings (Iliou, 1984) from a

TABLE 13

Gymnasion pupil population of three consecutive years (1985-1988)

Year	Gymnasion Class	Pupils	Total Wastage	Boys (B)	Wastage (B)	Girls (G)	Wastage (G)
85-86	1	166.094		88.649		77.445	
			20.157 (12%)		11.971 (13%)		8.186 (10,5%)
86-87	2	145.937		76.678		69.259	
			15.897 (9,5%)		10.504 (11%)		5.393 (6,9%)
87-88 Went up a class	3	130.040 123.121		66.174 61.567		63.866 61.554	
			6.919 (4,16%)		4.607 (5,2%)		2.312 (2,9%)
	TOTAL		42.973 (25,8%)		27.082 (30,5%)		15.891 (20,5%)

study carried out in the period 1965-67, before the change in the education system establishing the 9-year compulsory education. It would appear that, despite this change — through which the Gymnasion and primary school should compose a continuous educational level — transition from primary school to Gymnasion is difficult and, therefore, in the Gymnasion year 1 an informal selection takes place of pupils who will continue in secondary education. In addition, academic failure continues to be higher for boys than for girls. One could suppose that the earlier interpretation offered for this phenomenon continues to be valid: girls work harder and their performance is better than the boys' because their opportunities for confirmation and proof of self-worth outside of school are very limited (Iliou, 1984).

Greece is a land of mountains, islands, and small villages. Cultural and education services are unequally distributed between centre and regions. It is not surprising that school wastage is much higher in rural areas than in urban ones.

TABLE 14

Percentages dropping out of school in urban and rural areas

	Urban Areas	Rural Areas
Young people aged 14-18 who dropped out of Gymnasion, as % of their age-group	7%	24%
Young people aged 19-24 who dropped out of Gymnasion, as % of their age-group	13%	51%
Young people aged 19-24 who dropped out of Lykeion, as % of their age-group	23%	66%

Source: Workforce Survey, 1988

Table 15 shows the distribution of education levels over different districts of Athens, where we see clearly that large differences exist between privileged areas — Maroussi, Holargos, Ag. Paraskevi — and non-privileged ones, which is the remainder. Table 16 shows the differences in drop out rates for compulsory education for different areas of Greece (Katsikas, 1993b).

A 1989 pilot study (Stathakopoulou, Zanni, Alexandridis, 1989), which surveyed a sample of 575 people not holding a Gymnasion leaving certificate, who were candidates for the OAED's fast-stream schools, showed that: firstly, 61,4% had a certificate of elementary education, which means that some of them did not attend the Gymnasion at all or went to the first year and did not finish. Secondly, the main reasons for their abandoning school was that their performance was very low (56%) and also because they did not enjoy school (38,6%).

TABLE 15

Level of education in different districts of Athens

Borough	Higher	Secondary	Primary
Peristeri	7	22,6	70,4
Ag. Barbara	7,9	20,6	71,4
Nea Liosia	7,4	25,3	67,2
Egaleo	7,5	23,7	68,7
Ag. Paraskevi	44,7	37,3	17,9
Holargos	45	38	17
Maroussi	40,8	35,1	24,1

Source: GSS, processed by the journal *Antitetradia tis Ekpedefsis*

TABLE 16

Drop-out rate of the 9-year compulsory education in various rural districts

District	% dropping out of Gymnasion
Evrytania (1987)	21
Ilia (underprivileged district)	55
Samos	25
Fourni	43,6
Chania (rural)	46
Trikala (rural)	23
Lesbos	21,5

Source: Newspaper *Ta Nea*, 24/4/1993

4.2 Poverty and Education

There are many indications that the early abandonment of school is related to the problem of poverty. Although *gratis* education has been constitutionally established for a very long time, there is a wealth of data showing that the demand for high quality education is very great and

the Greek family invests large sums in their children's education. These sums are spent on learning foreign languages, musical instruments but mainly they go on lessons in the *frondistiria* during the Gymnasion and Lykeion years. In the competition found in the field of education, the lower socio-economic classes are the losers.

An interesting study by Chrysakis (1990) examines the two-way relationship between poverty and education. It becomes obvious that, on the one hand, poverty effects and causes educational inequalities, more particularly, the early abandonment of education and, on the other hand, that a lower standard of education leads to poverty.

In the present study, we separate the population of Greece into poor and non-poor, based on the criteria decided by the National Social Studies Centre, for the purposes of a different study which focused on poverty in Greece. It was discovered that members of poor households are characterised by particularly low standards of education, compared with members of non-poor households. This difference is more marked in urban areas than the provinces. It was found that 56,22% only hold a primary school leaving certificate, 36,38% have failed to complete elementary education, 6,48% hold a secondary education leaving certificate, while only 0,9% are Tertiary education graduates. This low standard of education of the poor is compounded by their difficult socio-occupational situation. Next, the fact that the 9-year education is compulsory by law has not managed to wipe out schools' wastage, which persists over time and is found with high incidence amongst the children of the poor. The poor aged 14-19 fail to complete primary school with an incidence *more* than seven-fold of that of the non-poor, while the poor aged 20-29 have a rate which is equivalent to seven-fold of that of the non-poor. As shown by Table 17, the Athens area proportion of poor children without a primary leaving certificate is the lowest (5,31%) amongst all poor children; even so, a comparison with the Athens area non-poor children shows a difference much greater than the difference noted in semi-urban and rural areas. In other words, although in the Athens area education services are better and access to them is easier, the poor cannot take advantage of them as much as one would expect. We could suppose that in urban centres there exist other factors — perhaps the harder economic competition — which place the children of the poor in a more difficult position and increase this inequality. The same analysis shows that failure at school has results more catastrophic for the poor than

TABLE 17

Percentage of school leavers without certificate of Primary Education

AREAS	Poor	Non-Poor
Athens District	5,31%	1,10%
Other Urban Areas	9,52%	2,33%
Semi-urban	8,91%	4,56%
Rural	9,91%	4,56%
TOTAL	8,99%	2,76%

Source: Chrysakis, 1990b

the non-poor. Poor children who do not go up a class drop out of school much more often than do the non-poor. It was also confirmed that low standards of education are not due to poverty but lead to it. Consequently, steps must be taken to combat the early abandonment of school noted amongst children of poor families.

Another study examines the relationship between poverty and educational inequalities and attempts to interpret educational inequalities. It analyses consumer expenditure on education by poor and non-poor households and takes this expenditure as an index of family investment practices. Raw statistical,data were analysed from the GSS family budget survey 1981-82. It was shown that expenditure on education by the poor does not exceed 22,5% of the respective expenditure by non-poor households. This gap becomes larger when we look at the average monthly expenditure per person, in which case it does not exceed 20%.

Clearly, therefore, the poor spend five times less money on their children's education. However, when their income rises, we note a small tendency for an increase in expenditure on their children's education.

4.3 Recapitulation of Needs and Problems

To recap, we should note the following: the drop out rate from compulsory education in Greece is very high (36-37% approx.). The greatest school wastage appears to occur in Gymnasion year 1, a key class for the transition from elementary to secondary education. As regards the sex of the pupils, the girls' rate of academic success and continuation of their studies is higher than the boys'. Yet, these percentages are calculated based on the enrolled pupil population, for both primary school and Gymnasion. It is also noteworthy that, in both primary school and Gymnasion, there are 3-4% more boys enrolled than girls, a fact which cannot be explained by their proportion of the overall population, which is the inverse. It would be well worth researching what powers and what reasons prevent certain groups of girls from enrolling at school.

The differences between urban and rural areas are great and operate to the disadvantage of the latter. Even at county level, however, more distant and deprived areas have much higher rates of schools' wastage. Poverty is closely related to this problem. Children of poor households show higher rates of dropping out of school than do those of the non-poor. There are some indications that this is more due to their families' inability to invest financially in education than to other reasons. The poor would appear to make some investments in their children's education only when the children's school performance is satisfactory. The disadvantage of the poor compared with the non-poor appears to increase in urban centres as against rural areas. Although there is no specific research, one may suppose with some certainty that the rates of those dropping out of school are much higher for groups such as the Gipsies, immigrants, returning emigrants and children who come from children's homes.

Workforce surveys show that around 350-400.000 young men and women aged 14-29 — with very low standards of general learning — are looking for work and will continue to do so for many years to come. What VG and what occupational training opportunities are available to them today?

As already mentioned, the main opening for these young people is in the OAED's fast-stream vocational training programmes for adults, attended by approximately 2.500 persons annually

but even these programmes show a trend of raising the level of formal educational qualifications required and this has already happened as regards certain trades. In addition, examination of the GSS statistical data confirms that, although these schools accept persons with a primary school certificate, a high proportion of their students hold a Lykeion leaving certificate. This is most probably due to the lack of public vocational training suitable for Lykeion graduates. There are some further openings in certain vocational training programmes run by the Ministry of Agriculture and the Greek Organisation of Small and Medium Craft Industries (GOSMCI) but they offer very few places. In recent years, a large number of short vocational training programmes has been operated, funded by the European Community but these are not designed for the needs of the group we are dealing with and, consequently, are not utilised by this group. Such further education programmes, whether targeting young people or adults, almost always concern persons with average or high standards of education and very few address the group in which we are interested.

Lastly, the recently created VTIs may provide training for people with a primary school certificate (level 1), as laid down by the relevant Law; indeed, they can provide flexible training.

There has been extensive development of the situation prevailing in VG Services. Yet, this specific group is not attended to as regards VG by any of these Services. In addition, the persons comprising this group do not have the required social or economic means — circle of acquaintances or material means — with which to replace the missing guidance and information services. The General Secretariat for Popular Further Education (GSPFE), which is the Service competent for material content, was only set up recently and has not played an important part to date.

This group, then, has a very gappy general education, no training whatever and no support from VG Services. Obviously, its chances of developing a European dimension and mobility as an attitude of life are minimal.

Chapter 5

YOUNG WOMEN WITH GYMNASION OR LYKEION LEAVING CERTIFICATE, WITHOUT VOCATIONAL TRAINING

In this chapter we will deal with the problems and needs of young women who have no vocational specialisation. By saying vocational specialisation we mean that they have not attended any initial vocational training programme — of at least one year's duration — which allows them to claim a job with options for further advancement. This specific target group comprises young women who complete either the 9-year compulsory education or the Lykeion and do not train for a vocation. The reason we chose a group a females is that the impressive achievements of young women in education during the last decade have concealed the enormous VG and establishment problems faced by a large section of them. There are several reasons why we limited ourselves to this target group out of women as a whole. VG problems facing young women of lower educational levels do not differ from those facing boys and we have referred to such problems in Section 4. As regards higher educational levels, a great many problems undoubtedly exist there which we touched upon in Section 3.3. Yet, women at that level have more possibilities to locate their difficulties and adapt themselves as necessary, so as to integrate into the labour market. Where unemployment hits hardest, however, is at the middle level (our target group). In this group, the young women and their families do not know what their guidance and vocational establishment problems are due to and, therefore, are not in a position to solve them. For this reason, if VG as an institution functioned satisfactorily, it could act as a catalyst.

Such data as do exist and to which we will refer in this chapter are very limited and they mainly come from GSS workforce surveys, the OAED and a few isolated research studies which we located. We will begin by reviewing the position of young women in this group in education and, later on, in employment. We will examine statistical data proving their minimal participation in vocational training programmes run by the main initial vocational training agencies and we will end by recapping this group's basic problems and needs for VG.

5.1 Young Women and Vocational Training

In Greece, the standard of education of women has improved impressively and no one can underestimate the importance of this fact. Women have established themselves at all educational levels and not only achieved equality with men but have proved themselves superior as regards participation rates, as well as performance in general education. Women's share in Tertiary education is greater than that of males. It has been dealt with extensively in the previous chapter that girls have lower wastage rates from compulsory education than boys and lower levels of academic failure. That is why they stay at school longer than do boys. Research data (Vaiou *et al.*, 1991) show that when the family is facing financial problems, it is the boys that take on family responsibilities and seek work earlier than girls. Yet, these substantial educational performances are not converted into proportionate occupational successes. On the contrary, when the time for occupational establishment comes, it is discovered that young women are at a serious disadvantage.

The position of women in the labour market continues to be problematic. Women's share of the labour market, although remaining low for the general population, has improved significantly for the young age group, so one might say that it has ceased to be a problem (Table 18). An examination of unemployment statistics (Pandion University, 1991) reveals that the situation deteriorates in relation to women's proportionate share in unemployment totals and also in long-term unemployment. Two out of three long-term unemployed are women (Table 19). Relevant research shows that the majority of the long-term unemployed

TABLE 18

Women's share (%) of population, workforce and unemployment, 1988

	ALL WOMEN	YOUNG WOMEN
POPULATION	51,9	53,5
WORKFORCE	37,0	47,1
EMPLOYED	35,0	40,7
UNEMPLOYED	60,3	65,3
LONG-TERM UNEMPLOYED	68,4	73,1

Source: Pandion University, 1991

face problems related to their integration into the labour market and finding their first job and not the loss of any employment they already have. From this we may conclude that women enter the labour market under obviously worse conditions than do men. The same study examines the level of education of the long-term unemployed and reveals that long-term unemployed women hold a secondary education leaving certificate at a rate of 55,6%; the respective rate for men being 46,1%. However, the percentage of long-term unemployed women who completed elementary education is 11%, much lower than that for men, which is 23,7%. The occupational category with a high concentration of long-term unemployed women is office workers, a type of job which absorbs female labour to an outstanding degree.

TABLE 19

The unemployed, by duration of unemployment, sex and age (medium unemployment = up to 6 months)

AGE	MEN		WOMEN	
	Long-term	Medium	Long-term	Medium
15-19	8,0	13,3	12,0	26
20-24	26,9	34,4	31,7	28,7
25-29	22,8	17,7	20,9	14,8

Source: Pandion University, 1991

These data point out explicitly the problem presented by mid-level young women's occupational establishment when they are not equipped for a vocation. The above picture is supplemented by the statistics of both the MNER and the OAED, which clearly show how very small young women's participation is in vocational training programmes.

Table 20 shows the very low participation by girls in the MNER's technical-vocational

TABLE 20

Secondary technical-vocational education. School population 1987-88

Type of School	Total	Boys %	Girls %
TVL	87.123	54.326 - 62,3	32.797 - 37,7
TVS	37.285	32.111 - 86,2	5.175 - 13,8
Ungraded Schools	3.146	2.146 - 68,2	1.000 - 32,8
Total	127.554	88.583 - 69,5	38.972 - 30,5

Source: Statistical Annual of Greece, 1989

education, where girls only account for 30%. Amongst the different types of technical-vocational training, girls show a preference for the TVLs — their participation here is almost 38% — with the ungraded schools coming next — 33% girls. The smallest rate of participation is found in the TVSs — only 14% — where, we remind the reader, young people with Gymnasion leaving certificates are accepted. The ungraded schools provide agricultural education, as well as arts subjects and those of the service sector, lasting 1, 2 or 3 years.

In Table 21 we present the pupil population of technical-vocational training, as it evolved in the period 1984-88. It is worth noting that while, during this period, the pupil population share in training programmes rose significantly (28% for all types of education, 26% for participation in TVLs and 36% for TVSs), the proportion of boys/girls remains throughout this time exactly the same for all types of technical-vocational education.

The relatively greater presence of girls in TVLs is easily explained by the fact that TVLs, apart from furnishing some vocational equipment, also provide general education, leading to Tertiary education. TVSs, on the other hand, provide clearly technical-vocational education, where most trades and specialities are technical and do not attract girls. The trades and specialities in TVLs and TVSs are set out in Annexes II and III.

The OAED's figures are equally disappointing as regards the participation of young women under 25 in their statistics (Pandion University, 1991). Table 22, showing the OAED Apprenticeship statistics from 1984-89, demonstrates the very low rate of participation by young women. In the five years 1984-89, young women's share in this rose very little (from 5,6% to 8,6%). It is highly likely that this small rise was due to the increase of places in some speciality of the service sector. When we examine the percent share by girls of the different trades of the Apprenticeship, we discover that, over time, there is an increased tendency by girls to participate in "female" trades, while their participation in "men's" trades tends to the minimum. It should, of course, be noted that most specialisations in the Apprenticeship are technical and pertain to the industrial sector. The situation is somewhat different in the statistics of Fast-stream vocational training (Table 23). The participation by women under 25 there is greater and appears to have risen significantly over time (from

19,3% in 1984 to 37% in 1989). This difference in the women's share between the

TABLE 21

Secondary technical-vocational education.
School population 1984-88

Schools/ School Year	Pupils		
	Total	Girls	%
Totals[1] for all Schools			
1984-85	101.543	30.316	30
1985-86	109.415	31.745	29
1986-87	118.437	34.769	29
1987-88	129.802	38.971	30
TVL			
1984-85	69.244	25.481	36
1985-86	72.542	26.199	36
1986-87	78.334	28.360	36
1987-88	87.123	32.797	37,7
TVS			
1984-85	27.401	4.136	15
1985-86	31.679	4.693	14,8
1986-87	33.400	4.924	14,7
1987-88	37.285	5.174	13,8
Ungraded Schools			
1984-85	2.761	699	25,3
1985-86	2.961	853	28,8
1986-87	4.401	1.485	33,7
1987-88	3.146	1.000	37,8

Source: Statistical Annual of Greece, 1989

[1]: Discrepancies in the addition totals are due to the pupil population of church schools, which is not taken into account because it is exclusively male.

Apprenticeship programmes and the Fast-stream training programmes is primarily due to the latter providing training apart from "men's" trades in clearly "women's" specialities, such as cutting and dressmaking, operating sewing machines, hairdressing, etc., where the rates of women's participation vary from 90-100%. A further reason is that, in recent years,

TABLE 22

OAED's Apprenticeship Courses, 1984-89

Persons aged 15-21	1984		1985		1986		1987		1988		1989	
	Number of persons	%	Number of persons	%	Number of persons	%	Number of persons	%	Number of persons	%	Number of persons	%
Men	7.974	94,4	8.384	94,4	9.289	93,8	9.979	93,6	9.867	93,2	9.575	91,4
Women	472	5,6	494	5,6	611	6,2	682	6,4	717	6,8	895	8,6
Total	8.446	100	8.856	100	9.900	100	10.661	100	10.584	100	10.470	100

Source: Pandion University, 1990

TABLE 23

OAED's Fast-stream vocational training, 1984-89

Persons aged under 25	1984		1985		1986		1987		1988		1989	
	Number of persons	%	Number of persons	%	Number of persons	%	Number of persons	%	Number of persons	%	Number of persons	%
Men	2.152	80,2	1.183	72,9	1.433	76,4	1.210	63,6	1.660	63,4	1.663	62,
Women	530	19,3	439	27,1	446	23,6	694	36,4	960	35,6	1.009	37,
Total	2.682	100	1.622	100	1.889	100	1.904	100	2.620	100	2.672	100

Source: Pandion University, 1990

the OAED's Fast-stream vocational training introduced new training courses in trades more attractive to women, such as confectionery, weaving, carpet making, processing agricultural

products, office work and computers. The reader should also keep in mind that the Fast-stream vocational training courses are of shorter duration (6-9 months).

The significant differences between men's and women's participation in training programmes, as well as in occupational integration strategies, are formally shown in a substantial piece of research entitled, "Young Women and Vocational Education and Training" (Kavounidis, 1990). This surveys 361 young people aged 20-29 who have graduated from a Lykeion in the Athens area and finds that a large section of the sample, 44%, had attended a private programme of vocational training. Contrary to what might have been expected, more women than men have attended vocational training programmes (Table 24) and this is valid independently of the social derivation of the girls. It is interesting that, while girls choose private vocational schools for their training, the boys opt for public ones. Table 25 shows that only 5% of girls resort to a school in the public sector, while 54% go to private ones.

TABLE 24

Involvement in vocational training courses

	Women	Men
Have taken courses	63%	40%
Have not	37%	60%

Source: Kavounidis, 1990

On the whole, girls attend shorter courses than boys. The girls' preference for private sector courses appears to be related to the type of courses offered by the private sector and not by the public sector; these mainly being courses in office work (secretarial, accountancy, computer studies and paramedical). The public sector, on the other hand, provides training in mainly industrial trades. Thus, ⅓ of women in the sample and ½ of all women who have attended training programmes are concentrated in low level office work. The same survey shows that, albeit that the courses chosen by girls do offer some employment possibilities,

they do lead to wage earning work on low pay and without options for advancement.

TABLE 25

Involvement in vocational education and training courses, by sector and sex, sample total

	Women	Men
Have not taken courses	37%	60%
Took public sector courses	5%	13%
Took private sector courses	54%	24%
Took courses in both sectors	4%	3%

Source: Kavounidis, 1990

Another significant difference between boys and girls is that the girls pursue to a greater extent wage earning work: in the public sector, in fact; while boys pursue self-employment. Also, replying to how significant they consider vocational training in relation to their present-day employment, 76% of girls replied that it was essential, as against 29% of boys. Other questions examining the importance of occupation in the lives of men and women elicited the information that boys and girls attached equal importance to their careers at the time they were finishing the Lykeion, whereas a few years later, at the time the survey was carried out, girls were less interested in their occupational future than boys. On the whole, boys express less interest in creating a family than do girls and appear more interested in their careers. The parental attitudes of our sample were similar. According to the young people's responses, parents are much less interested in the girls' careers than the boys'.

From this research we may conclude that, for the majority of young women and their families, work continues to be of secondary importance, an attitude which proved true for all socio-economic strata. The large participation by women in vocational training courses cannot be interpreted as reflecting the large significance attached by young women and their parents to their occupational careers. On the contrary, it expresses different occupational

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integration strategies which fit in with the perception of girls and their families concerning the secondary position held by work in their lives. That is precisely why most girls choose short courses preparing them for wage earning positions in occupations offering minimal advancement. Boys and their families, on the other hand, attach great importance to their occupational future and, thus, the route via occupational training is not the only or the main strategy for occupational integration, which is the case for girls. As regards boys, families appear to use other resources, both financial and social, to facilitate their establishment in an occupation. The matter of integration strategies for boys and girls is great and unexplored. The study in question touches important facets, which could become further subjects of research.

Another interesting piece of research (Sidiropoulou, 1990) focused on occupational choices of girls in Secondary Technical Education. The sample consisted of 450 girls and 383 boys in Gymnasion year 3 and the aim was to research their personal and social characteristics in relation to the type of Lykeion they proposed to attend after the end of compulsory education. Some of the more interesting findings were: girls intending to enrol in TVLs came from lower socio-economic strata and had a lesser academic performance. Contrary to what was expected, these girls accepted to a greater degree the traditional woman's rôle and wished to marry earlier than did girls who intended enrolling in the GELs. On the whole, girls who hold the most traditional expectations for their future lives were the girls who chose to study in TVLs. Or, in other words, the fact that young women may adopt a more progressive attitude towards their social rôles does not necessarily lead to a more progressive attitude towards technical education. It was also found that the group influencing children's perceptions most powerfully is the family. Mothers are comparatively more progressive, as are parents who have girls and parents of a higher standard of education. The influence of school teachers, more particularly SVG teachers, is also significant. While SVG teachers maintain that they try to liberate pupils from stereotypes, it would appear that this does not correspond with reality. On the contrary, they transmit reinforcing views such as, "A woman's work is supplementary" or, "It is difficult for a woman to find work in technical occupations".

An interesting finding of Kavounidis' research (1990) is the preference by girls for private

sector vocational education. In Section 3.2.2 we mentioned the important but largely unknown rôle played by private vocational education/training in Greece. It has also been mentioned that, according to estimates by the Panhellenic Union of Free Studies Centres, 25-30.000 young people attend their establishments, the majority of whom are girls. Furthermore, these establishments are concentrated in urban areas, mainly in Athens. The only other information source on FSCs is the Workforce Surveys. The 1989 survey (Table 26) shows the number of students to be much smaller, approximately 16.000, for the whole country. Yet the predominance of girls in FSC courses is obvious, as is the FSC concentration in Athens and Thessaloniki.

TABLE 26

Students at Free Studies Centres (private coaching establishments)

Area	Students		
	Total	Girls	Girls' proportion of total (%)
Greece Total	15.800	9.500	60
Athens	9.100	5.200	57
Thessaloniki	4.800	3.100	64,5
Other Urban	1.300	600	46
Semi-urban	300	300	100
Rural	300	300	100

Source: GSS, Workforce Survey, 1989

The FSCs offer education in a great many trades and specialities, mainly in the tertiary sector. It would be interesting to have data on the distribution of boys and girls in different specialities but no such data exist. Our experience in this field, as well as the few data in existence, show that the following courses must be exclusively female: secretaries, nurses, nursery nurses, draughtswomen, fashion designers, cutting and dressmaking, hairdressing,

beauticians. Initial vocational training is mainly provided by the MNER, the OAED and the FSCs. Post 1984, however, the high index of women's unemployment, as well as the funding from various Community programmes, encouraged many agencies to develop training programmes for women. State agencies (the OAED, the General Secretariat for Equality (GSE), local authorities, region authorities) as well as private agencies, such as women's organisations, non-profit making urban societies, etc., plan and implement training programmes targeted at women and aiming to equip them vocationally, as well as encouraging their integrate into traditionally "male" occupations. Such programmes represent positive action because they support women, even to a small degree, and raise their consciousness as well as social awareness to the special problems of guidance and employment for women. Nevertheless, no central body exists to collect data on the women who attend these programmes — their number, socio-economic characteristics — nor is their effectiveness assessed. Additional weaknesses of such programmes are that they are very short — 300-500 hours — and they do not form part of a more general policy on women's vocational training. Lastly, the design of these programmes does not take into account nor does it combine the needs and the young women with the needs of the labour market. Conversely, in most cases it imitates similar programmes in other EC countries. In our opinion, very few of these programmes address young women with Gymnasion leaving certificates but most of them target those with Lykeion leaving certificates, as well as Tertiary education graduates.

Apart from programmes for women's further education, women in this group participate in various mixed programmes for young people funded by the European Social Fund (ESF). These programmes, for the most part, address young people with secondary education leaving certificates; to a smaller degree, they target Tertiary education graduates and only to a very tiny extent do they address Gymnasion leavers. These programmes have the weaknesses already mentioned with regard to women's programmes.

5.2 Recapitulation of Needs and Problems

To recap the extant data, we point out the following: young women show very little participation in state run initial vocational training programmes because these, almost

exclusively, train young people for industrial trades. Of greater concern is the situation of girls with Gymnasion leaving certificates because this group has a very low participation rate in the MNER's TVSs and the OAED's Apprenticeship schools. The situation is much better in the OAED's Fast-stream educational programmes. On the other hand, girls' participation in private sector training programmes is much higher because these programmes do respond to girls' occupational preferences, albeit that they reproduce girls' occupational stereotypes, propagate inequality in the labour market to the girls' disadvantage and many lead to careers without options for advancement. This said, a large section of this group cannot be trained in these schools either for financial reasons — the fees are rather high — or because a lot of girls do not live in large towns and cities where these schools are to be found. This ominous situation has not only failed to change in recent years but, in certain cases, seems to be deteriorating. Even at higher educational levels, the type of education chosen by young men and women has differentiated more intensely in the last few years.

Given the above, the spectre of unemployment and poverty will threaten a large number of young women in this group. The cosmic changes taking place in technology and, by extension in the labour market, will find young women unprepared. At the same time, though, there are many positive points in relation to young women, such as their high academic success, the length of their general education, the positive attitude they adopt towards education generally and vocational education in particular. Unfortunately, however, these positive elements are not utilised correctly: they are not used for the acquisition of vocational skills which will secure better careers. Indeed, the opposite applies and one might say that these positive points rather boomerang because they keep young girls away from reality and labour market demands for longer periods, while they instil unrealistic occupational ambitions and delay their adaptation into and passage towards economically active life.

It is not in the remit of this report to examine more profoundly women's occupational choices or the factors influencing them. It is generally accepted that the heart of the problem lies in women's socialisation, the internalisation of their rôle as wife and mother and the perceptions concerning female nature and suitable vocational activities. It is also generally accepted that girls do not make educational and occupational selections as the result of a conscious choice

or a personal decision but reflect these perceptions. Women's VG is a subject both complex and unexplored. Separation of occupations into "men's" and "women's" exists in all countries and women orient themselves occupationally, revolving around the dual axis of their rôles in the family and at work. In traditional countries like Greece, the problem is greater still. The question is, what has been done until now and what is in the planning stages to change the situation and improve occupational integration and advancement options for women.

The SVG courses for Lykeion year 2 and the GELs' years 1 and 2 provide units which deal with occupational stereotypes in both sexes, how they are acquired and how they affect the vocational and educational opportunities of both sexes. In the TVLs and IMLs, where vocational education is mainly supplied, as well as in the Gymnasion year 3, which is a transitional year, nothing relevant is provided. Furthermore, even if such provision were to be considered satisfactory, the problem lies in its application by teachers without specific training (more so because these subjects require special training and consciousness raising in women's matters).

The GSE has intervened so that new primary school textbooks do not project traditional gender rôles — woman in the home, man at work — but rôles of equal value for both sexes inside and outside the home.

As already mentioned, unemployment but, to a larger extent, European Community programmes have pushed public and private sector agencies, as well as many women's organisations, to implement women's further education programmes. Workshops and conferences on the subject have also been organised. The OAED has instituted, both in its Apprenticeship and in the Fast-stream, special measures offering priority to women entering trades traditionally "men's". Furthermore, in job creation programmes, it offers larger subsidies to those employers taking on young women trained in "men's" occupations. Finally, using experiences from other countries, various women's organisations, the YWCA and the OAED from time to time organise VG programmes, as well as similar programmes for women's consciousness raising. These programmes are very few, they usually take place in the Athens area or in other large cities and, therefore, they have minimal effects on the

general problems of this group.

Such action is very positive but, as can be seen from the results, it is not enough. The activities involved are fragmented and do not fall within an overall vocational training policy which sets aims and assesses the results. In addition, the area showing greatest need is secondary education, where the least is being done.

Turning to vocational education — the OAED Apprenticeship and, more particularly, the MNER's TVSs — this was created about 25 years ago with the rationale that it exclusively targeted boys. Since then and despite legislative change in its regime, very few adaptations and changes have taken place to make it respond to girls' vocational preferences and particularities. A simple look at the trades and specialities in which it offers training (Annexes III and IV) suffices to discover this. Based on prevailing perceptions, these specialities were not and, even today, are not capable of attracting girls. It is, in any case, common knowledge that the change of attitudes and perceptions happens slowly and in small steps and not by projecting positions diametrically opposed to the ones prevailing. Such tactics achieve exactly the opposite: that is, stressing then the prevailing attitudes. Therefore, what should have been done to encourage the integration of girls in vocational education was either to introduce new trades and specialities, which are halfway between "men's" and "women's", or to enrich "women's" specialities with elements of new technology. Nothing of the sort has been done. The only exception in the public sector is the OAED's Fast-stream education which, with its flexibility and short courses, allows for the introduction of new specialities. The positive results from this new action are already apparent.

As regards mobility/non-mobility, this group is equipped — educational infrastructure, knowledge of a foreign language — to develop an open and flexible attitude towards the developments of the single European market. This, however, requires appropriate support in that direction from services, education, training and VG, enriched with European components.

Chapter 6

COMMENTS — SUGGESTIONS

6.1 General Context

As shown in previous chapters, the general context — labour market, education system, values and attitudes — does not help the vocational guidance and establishment of young people.

Unemployment is and, indeed, is experienced as the number one social problem because it is not uniformly distributed over all population groups. On the contrary, it affects excessively the lower socio-economic classes, i.e, those who have the smallest margins within which to stand a further shrinkage of their income. If we relate this problem to the rise of long-term unemployment, then the solution becomes harder and unemployment becomes a permanent rather than temporary problem for some social groups, whose likelihood of securing a job is continuously reduced. These groups are not adults, which used to be the case, but are made up of young men and women who are new entrants to the labour market (Karantinos, 1988).

Furthermore, it should not be overlooked that unemployment, although a very serious problem in itself, also leads to another range of problems, impeding even more the social and vocational integration of the unemployed. Such problems are the loss of general learning and occupational skills which may have been acquired because these are not supplemented by the relevant experience, as well as the loss of self-esteem and self-confidence, physical and psychological ill-health, social isolation, etc. (Katsoridas, 1993). Several studies exist showing that protracted unemployment in the early career stages also leads to future problems such as the inability to keep a job and low pay (Karantinos, 1988).

The groups affected most are young people and women. Unemployment in these groups is tolerated by society to a greater degree than is adult unemployment. It is considered that

young people are supported by the family and, as regards women, their income is thought to be supplementary. We should, however, mention that between 1985 and 1987 public expenditure to combat unemployment rose by 63%. The most important steps taken were the computerisation of employment services, the establishment of a new, improved system of unemployment benefits, the creation of training programmes, as well as employers' subsidies which aimed to create new jobs. Most of these measures received funding from the ESF. An examination of the implementation of these steps shows that they had some positive effects but such measures and programmes did not benefit those who had the greatest need, i.e., those hit by unemployment and threatened by social exclusion (underprivileged persons and drop outs) (Karantinos, Kavounidis, *et al.*, 1990). In addition, in spite of the improvement of unemployment benefit systems, 95% of the unemployed are not covered by them (a great part of unemployment is not registered, high proportion of self-employment, unemployment benefits for new entrants to the labour market last only six months).

A feature of the Greek education system is that it is continuously changing. Therefore, the experience gained from implementation of a system is not utilised as fully as it should be by the state. Also, the rational and timely design of vocational decisions is often overturned by changes in the system.

Turning to disadvantaged persons and those with special needs, both the general and vocational education available are highly inadequate and the few special schools are not enough to cope with existing needs.

Greek education is often severely criticised both on the grounds of its doubtful quality and its inability to satisfy, on a quantitative basis, existing demand (more particularly at the secondary and tertiary levels).

Finally, technical-vocational education, despite repeated reforms aiming to upgrade it, has failed to convince as to its quality or effectiveness in the occupational integration of young people.

The negative attitude towards manual work and the deification of general education does not

help with the identification of problems caused by technological development. Young people and their parents have not become aware of the need for high quality vocational education. This applies more to young women, whose perceptions of their rôle and suitable occupational activities limits them even more to the area of general education and distances them from the demands posed by the real world.

6.2 Vocational Guidance Services

To date, VG Services have not played an important part in informing and guiding young people concerning their occupational decisions. Yet the need for VG is continuously on the increase. Youth unemployment is rising. The huge influx of refugees of Greek descent is creating the need for occupational integration and guidance within groups with particular cultural traits. Whole areas are in a crisis due to redundancies from problem enterprises. Young people have great need for information related to the labour market, occupations, training possibilities and these not only at home but also in Europe. Although various laws and statutes extend VG services to new population groups, the number of the OAED's VG workers is continuously falling. Thus, needs are either not met or are met piecemeal without rational long-term planning. Although the OAED does have the necessary infrastructure, as well as the breadth, to develop VG, it does not appear to act in this direction, mainly for two reasons: firstly, the economic recession and the distention of the public sector do not allow recruitment and, secondly, due to its many competencies, it has more immediate and pressing problems than VG and mostly gives priority to these.

As regards SVG, its targets and detailed courses aim to help the average pupil in relation to educational and vocational decisions. There is no provision whatever for meeting the needs of groups of young people in a crisis, who are facing specific problems with VG and integration into the labour market. This, in any case, would not be possible on two grounds: due to the inadequate training of educationalists and also because Greek schools do not co-operate with other professionals and experts, who, in their turn, might have contributed to the solution of such problems and whose presence would have enriched the task of education. Secondary education is facing enormous problems: material and technical infrastructure,

further education of teaching staff, their pay structure, the organisation and function of educational units. The conflicts to which such problems lead impede the confrontation of SVG problems and so SVG is not amongst the priorities of educational policy.

The continuous changes to the education system brought about by various governments of the day lower the rôle of SVG in education. The different social groups involved in implementing SVG (associations of educationalists, parent associations, youth organisations) exert no pressure whatever for its development. SVG is a newly emerged institution with many weaknesses, yet no one can dispute the needs of young people for information and counselling in the classroom. As with every new institution, what is needed to raise the level of the services it offers is a continual assessment of its application and the identification of its weak points by researchers outside education. In assessment studies, new needs which arise from the single European market, as well as the economic recession and unemployment, must not be overlooked. Any change which is decided arbitrarily and is not based on a systematic assessment of the institution is not merely unhelpful but may prove fatal to its further course.

6.3 Needs of Young People — Suggestions

It is clear that young people in our country go through the critical transitional stages of their lives entirely unassisted by Information and Guidance Services. It has also been shown by a European survey (INRA EUROPE, 1991) that, compared with young people from other Community countries, young Greeks are supported less by suitable youth Services. The absence of Information and Guidance Services is met by the family, which makes available a large portion of its resources, both financial and social, for the occupational establishment of its children. Given that young people tend to become independent earlier and the labour market is widening and development in technology accelerating, the family and all other informal VG networks can no longer be effective. If this is valid for the average young person, then the situation is far more disturbing for disadvantaged persons, such as those who abandon their schooling early and young women with no vocational training who, in any case, are not served by the informal VG networks.

What are the vocational guidance needs of the young who do not complete compulsory education? Vocational guidance is an institution which assists persons to profit, as far as possible, from the openings available to them, whether for education, training or employment. In addition, it informs the agencies providing these openings concerning the personal needs and characteristics of individuals, so as to adapt the openings accordingly. Its mission is — at least ideally — not simply to function as a mediator but to act as a springboard for development, both of human resources and of education/training. It is obvious that, when the system does not provide educational and occupational openings, VG has no function to perform. This is the situation with regard to young people who do not complete compulsory education.

Concerning the case in hand, it is our considered opinion that the primary needs of these individuals are primarily to be found in the area of education/training and social policy and only secondly in vocational guidance. Some of the steps which must definitely be taken are the following:

— to research in depth the problem of dropping out of school early, including the reasons for this;

— to include in SVG targets the prevention and restriction of schools wastage;

— to support poor families with children in compulsory education through social policy programmes;

— to develop tutoring lessons in the key school years (years when schools wastage occurs);

— for agencies, such as, for example, the GSPFE, to develop informal education courses aiming to supplement the learning of individuals in this group;

— to develop informal vocational training programmes corresponding to the needs and levels of education of these individuals;

— all the above initiatives must take place in co-operation with similar initiatives in other EC countries.

Creating such education services will automatically create the need for VG services aiming to utilise them fully. From previous chapters it has transpired that there is a greater need for these initiatives in the regions rather than in towns and cities; also in disadvantaged and isolated areas of both urban and rural districts.

What should be done for the vocational guidance of young women without occupational qualifications? To begin with, it is essential to research women's occupational choices and the factors influencing them, as well as the integration strategies for young women and for men. The findings from such research would help design more effective initiatives for the vocational guidance of women.

Furthermore, special emphasis must be placed on the systematic information of young women and their families concerning problems in women's employment and on unemployment. Young people and their families do not know the labour market situation. They do not know that a secondary education leaving certificate is no longer effective equipment to secure a job or that office work is surfeited. Research data prove that young women more than young men show contempt for manual work and mainly seek salaried employment in the service sector. Moreover, self-employment, which in times of unemployment is considered a satisfactory occupational opening, is a very frequent occupational outlet for men but much rarer for women. Women and their families have a pressing need for information concerning existing educational and vocational openings. The lack of information is greater in the regions than in towns and cities.

Since women's VG is a complex subject, the provision of information is essential but not enough. That is why it must be complemented by VG programmes specifically for women which will aim to sensitise and raise the awareness of women and their families concerning perceptions which define their choice of occupation. Such programmes are being implemented on a very small scale and mainly target older women. The problem is much greater, however, in younger age groups, 15-20 year-olds, which is when the most important

educational and occupational decisions are made. In adolescence, when a young woman forms her gender identity, she feels more insecure and, therefore, her decisions concerning occupation are more conservative. It is at this stage that she needs more support from VG programmes. There is no choice but to implement these programmes in the classroom. Their effectiveness presupposes the sensitisation of teachers to women's issues.

In conclusion, it is pointed out that the essential prerequisite for the above is to give women's VG some priority within an education and training policy. Such a policy should examine the introduction of trades/specialities, which are a half way solution between "men's" and "women's" specialities and which are attractive to women. At the same time, such a policy should be projected and promoted in many ways.

The creation of a dynamic and European VG institution is an imperative need for Greece. The country is facing a profound demographic problem. Based on population forecasts, it is estimated that, by the year 2050, the country will have lost 2 million inhabitants. The drop in the workforce will reach almost 1 million (30% of the present day workforce). In 1981 the proportion of elderly to young persons was 1:1, whereas in 2050 it will be 2:1. Moreover, Greece is geographically isolated: it lies on the periphery of the Community and does not share a border with any other Community country. Objectively speaking, young people have fewer possibilities of moving to another country and they have great difficulty of access to information sources.

Where VG traditionally functions, the efforts to develop it further must continue. Objectively, however, this is immensely difficult to achieve. Precisely for this reason, the aims and strategies must be clarified and specified. Other agencies also must develop broadened Europeanised guidance, characterised by flexibility, neutrality and looking towards Europe. The YGGS, the GSPFE, local authorities or an agency specifically set up for this purpose would be satisfactory solutions. In our opinion, relating VG exclusively to education/training contains much risk, principally that of cutting VG off from reality and considering it another "teaching" task. The area of education remains "hermetically sealed" and detached from economically active life. The agency developing this topic must maintain an even distance, while securing the co-operation of education, training, employment and

social policy. Co-operation with social policy agencies is a new component that must become a feature of vocational guidance for this to include in its target groups not only the great mass of young people but also the socially disadvantaged. Co-operation with private VG agencies must also be looked at seriously.

The main aim of VG must be to secure for all young people with minimum general education, which today is the 9-year compulsory education, and to develop to the greatest degree possible their occupational armoury. This should be achieved either within the formal education system or through informal and flexible types of education and training. VG must provide for special action for disadvantaged groups as well as disadvantaged areas (rural, the island, etc.) and utilise new technology to this purpose.

No VG intervention will be effective unless its target groups include parents. Informing and raising the awareness of parents is absolutely indispensable as long as parents continue to be the most powerful factor influencing the young.

Turning to the nature of services provided, VG must go beyond conventional activities (information, assessment, counselling, etc.) and provide for additional action corresponding to the new needs and problems of young people:

— experiential activities, so as to energise the young themselves;

— mobilisation of all agencies in their community;

— approaching groups who have no motivation to turn to their normal environment for help (out-reach programmes);

— monitoring and supportive activities for young people during the stage of implementing their decisions as to occupation.

Finally, VG must be in continuous contact and co-operation with corresponding agencies in Community countries, so as to broaden its aims on a continuous basis and widen its activities and methodology using new ideas and information from other Community countries.

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Annexe I
ACRONYMS

English acronym		Greek acronym
ASC	Agricultural Studies Centre	ΚΕΓΕ
EC	European Community	ΕΚ
ESF	European Social Fund	ΕΚΤ
FSC	Free Studies Centres	ΕΕΣ
GCGW	General Confederation of Greek Workers	ΓΣΕΕ
GDP	Gross Domestic Product	ΑΕΠ
GEL	General Lykeion	ΓΕΛ
GOSMCI	Greek Organisation of Small and Medium Craft Industries	ΕΟΜΜΕΧ
GSE	General Secretariat for Equality	ΓΓΙ
GSPFE	General Secretariat for Popular Further Education	ΓΓΛΕ
GSS	National Statistical Service of Greece	ΕΣΥΕ
HEE	Higher Education Establishment	ΑΕΙ
IML	Integral Multi-discipline Lykeion	ΕΠΛ
MNER	Ministry of National Education and Religion	ΥΠΕΠΘ
NIRRGS	National Institute for the Reception and Rehabilitation of Greek Stock	ΕΙΥΑΣΟΕ
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development	ΟΟΣΑ
OAED	Manpower Employment Organisation	ΟΑΕΔ
SVG	Schools Vocational Guidance	ΣΕΠ
TEI	Technical Education Institutes	ΤΕΙ
TVL	Technical Vocational Lykeion	ΤΕΛ
TVS	Technical Vocational School	ΤΕΣ
VG	Vocational Guidance	ΕΠ
VTI	Vocational Training Institutes	ΙΕΚ
WS	Workforce Survey	ΕΕΔ
YGGS	Young Generation General Secretariat	ΓΓΝΓ

Annexe II

TVL DEPARTMENTS

1. Agriculture and Animal Rearing
2. Building and Construction
3. Applied Arts and Crafts
4. Electrical and Electronic
5. Spinning and Textiles
6. Social Services
7. Mechanics
8. Marine Occupations Education
9. Nautical
10. Economics and Administration
11. Information/Computer Studies
12. Chemical and Metallurgy

Annexe III

TVS SPECIALITIES

1. Car Bodywork
2. Silver- and Goldsmith
3. Automation-Computers
4. Assistant Dyer
5. Assistant Spinner
6. Assistant Knitter
7. Assistant Weaver
8. Commercial Employees
9. Tool Machines
10. Reinforced and Non-Reinforced Concrete Works
11. Internal Electrical Installations
12. Fitter
13. Motor Electricians
14. Electrical Machinery
15. Domestic and Industrial Electrical Appliances
16. Gardening and Flower Growing
17. Cutting and Sewing
18. Cutting and Sewing of Women's Clothing
19. Ore Extraction
20. Mechanised Cultivation
21. Motor Engines
22. Internal Combustion Engines
23. Aircraft Engine Assembly
24. Carpentry and Woodwork
25. Radio-Television
26. Welding
27. Welding and Metal Constructions
28. Dairy and Cheese Making
29. Plumbing and Heating
30. Pharmacy Assistant
31. Comptometer and Punch Card Machine Operator
32. Refrigeration Installations
33. Clock and Watch Making

Annexe IV

OAED's FAST-STREAM SPECIALITIES

1. Pottery
2. Hagiography and Painting
3. Flowers and Horticulture
4. Sewing Machine Work
5. Agricultural Cultivation
6. Oil Painting
7. Fitter-Maintenance
8. Cakes and Confectionery
9. Electronics
10. Motor Electricals Technician
11. Electrical Installations Technician
12. Electrical Maintenance Technician
13. Plumbing and Heating
14. Cutting and Sewing
15. Hairdressing
16. Builder
17. Agricultural Products Processing
18. Motor Mechanic Technician
19. Sewing and Knitting Machine Mechanics
20. Woodwork
21. Shorthand Typist, Office Worker
22. Welding and Metal Constructions
23. Boiler Works Maintenance
24. Carpet Making
25. Fisheries Technician
26. Maltings Technician
27. Waiter and Hotel Floor Work
28. Lathe Operator
29. Weaving
30. Refrigeration

Annexe V

OAED's APPRENTICESHIP SPECIALITIES

1. Pottery and Ceramics
2. Gold- and Silversmith
3. Baking and Cakes with Flour
4. Electrical Technician
5. Motor Electricals Technician
6. Fish Farming
7. Hairdressing
8. Cutting and Sewing
9. Machine Technician
10. Motor Engine Technician
11. Carpentry and Furniture Making
12. Commercial Higher Employee
13. Welding and Metal Constructions
14. Mechanical, Electrical and Electronic Draughtsmanship
15. Bodywork Technician
16. Graphic Arts Technician
17. Tooling Systems Technician
18. Electronic Automation Technician
19. MEK (*sic*) Technician
20. Shipbuilding Industry Technician
21. Plumbing and Heating
22. Refrigeration
23. Watch and Clock Making

Target groups analysed in the twelve Member States

B	1)	Young people in Charleroi and Wallonian Brabant
	2)	Young people in Brussels
DK	1)	Locked-in, unemployed young people
	2)	Young people dropping out or changing course in the education system
D		Girls and young women when choosing an occupation
GR	1)	Young people who leave school without completing compulsory education
	2)	Young women with no skills training
E	1)	Young women in the autonomous community of Madrid whose chief activity is domestic work in their own homes
	2)	Young people of both sexes affected by industrial reconversion on the left bank of the Bilbao estuary
F	1)	Young people in initial training
	2)	Young job seekers
IRL		Rural disadvantaged youth Case study 1: North Mayo Case study 2: North-West Connemara
I		Low skilled young people
L	1)	Young people in the 9th class of upper secondary technical education
	2)	Young people with supplementary education in the last year of compulsory schooling
NL		Young drifters
P	1)	Young people in their 9th school year
	2)	Young people who have completed their 9th school year and are attending vocational training schools
	3)	Young people with or without school leaving certificate attending alternative training courses
UK	1)	Young people in full-time employment
	2)	Homeless young people

CEDEFOP - European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training

Determining the need for vocational counselling among different target groups of young people under 28 years of age in the European Community
Young people's need for vocational guidance in Greece
Kassandra Zanni-Teliopoulou, Penelope Stathakopoulou
I E K E II Institute of Educational & Vocational Guidance, Kifissia

CEDEFOP panorama

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Following a brief overview of the career guidance systems in their countries, the authors of the reports describe a number of target groups of young people under 28 years of age, their economic, social and cultural backgrounds and the problems posed by the transition from school to working life.

A total of 21 target groups from the whole spectrum are examined, ranging from young people with favourable conditions for transition to the most disadvantaged.

A comparison is made between the need for career guidance, the demand coming from these groups and the current offer. The conclusions drawn in the summary report (deficit analyses) provide indications for designing future action programmes at EU level.

Particular attention is paid to mobility and the readiness of young people in this age group (PETRA II) throughout the EU Member States.

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National report